

THE EFFECTIVE COLLEGE

ROBERT LINCOLN KELLY

— EDITOR —

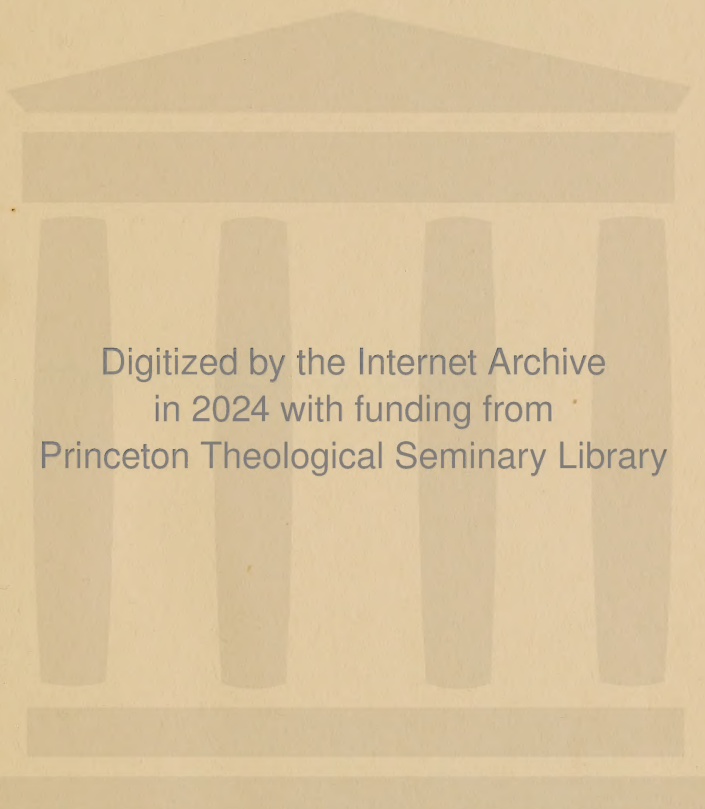
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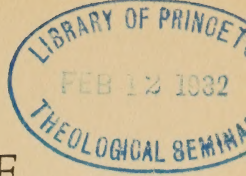
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THE EFFECTIVE COLLEGE



THE EFFECTIVE COLLEGE

BY A GROUP OF AMERICAN STUDENTS
OF HIGHER EDUCATION

EDITED BY ✓
ROBERT LINCOLN KELLY

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INTRODUCTION

The American college is fearfully and wonderfully made. For many years the doctors have been watching it, thumping it and probing into it in the hope of understanding its anatomy and physiology. More recently its psychology and hygiene also have been subject to careful observation.

Its unaccountable behavior has attracted the attention of the general public, who have been convinced it has a high fever, or a weak heart, or a diseased brain or arteriosclerosis, or all put together. Nearly everybody agrees it must be incurably sick and yet siren-like it draws increasing thousands of our best youth into its atmosphere and life.

Meantime, there have been formed throughout the country groups of specialists whose one purpose is to hold consultations on the health of the college. They seek to find its elements of strength and weakness and the conditions under which its organs best function. Among these is the Association of American Colleges, which concerns itself with the destinies of almost four hundred colleges. Two or three years ago the members of this Association agreed to cooperate in discovering and setting forth the characteristics of an effective college, which is the educational way of saying a healthy college. The assumption of these specialists is that organically the college is sound and that such ailments as it has are local and temporary—at worst that they are functional.

THE EFFECTIVE COLLEGE is a compilation of reports on this investigation. More than half the chapters were published in the BULLETIN of the Association during 1926 and 1927. Of these, some were carefully prepared papers, others stenographic reports of *ex tempore* addresses before the annual meeting of the Association. With appropriate editing they are here assembled, together with some ten additional papers prepared especially for this book.

INTRODUCTION

While these studies have been carried on by different individuals during a period of two years, the authors all had in mind the one purpose of portraying selected phases of operation of an effective college. In this day of specialists and of efforts at group thinking the method is in no sense unusual or indefensible. While no claim of finality is made for any chapter, nor that all chapters together adequately canvass the field, it is felt that these contributions are worthy of the degree of permanence which this book seeks to give them. The volume is offered to the increasing group of interested students of the American college in the hope that it may make some contribution toward the rapidly developing science and art of college administration and teaching. Specifically, it is an expansion of the idea of an "efficient college," with the definition of which the Association of American Colleges was concerned a decade ago.

The authors have worked without expectation of reward other than the satisfaction which comes through personal devotion to the liberalizing of American education.

ROBERT LINCOLN KELLY.

New York City
December fifth
Nineteen hundred and twenty-seven.

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FIRST PART

IDEALS FOR THE EFFECTIVE COLLEGE

Chapter

- I. The American College of the Twentieth Century
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I

THE AMERICAN COLLEGE OF THE TWENTIETH CENTURY

FRANK AYDELOTTE

We college presidents who have a certain responsibility for the development of the American college and who are credited by the public with exercising much greater influence over that development than in fact we do or can, are met this year to discuss the question of the character of the effective college, and it is to the beginning of that discussion that I propose to devote my presidential address. Our critics, whose name is Legion, will say that it is high time we applied ourselves to this subject. They will accuse us of having wasted much time in not attacking it sooner; they will demand that we should have settled it long ago.

As a matter of fact we are only giving a name this year to the real subject of all our discussions, and the real purpose for which the Association of American Colleges exists. We are undertaking at this meeting (and personally I hope that we shall devote at least one more annual meeting to the same undertaking) to bring up to date the very useful booklet which the Association published under a similar title in 1917. Since that date many changes have taken place; what is possible now was not possible then, and difficulties which were then but dimly perceived now stare us in the face and shame us until we can find a remedy.

For we are creatures of our time, we college presidents. The institutions over which we watch, too often with ineffectual anxiety, are living organisms, responsive to the feverish spirit of the age, throbbing with its energy, reflecting its restless search both for passing pleasures and for the unattainable ideal. Like the newspapers, the movies, and the railroads, we must give the public what it wants. If we cared to boast, I think we might say with some justice that we have gone a little further than any one of those institu-

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tions in trying to convince the public that what it really wants is not what will satisfy its most superficial whim, but rather what will meet its deepest, perhaps as yet unconscious, need. Our success depends in the long run on persuading the public that what it wants is what will satisfy its best, and not its ordinary self.

We thank the Lord for our critics, but we can not give all of them all that they want, if for no other reason than because their demands are self-contradictory. The colleges are criticised because their manifold extra-curricular activities bulk larger and occupy more of the student's time than those academic studies for which the institution exists. On the other hand, they are criticised because sufficient scope is not allowed for these same activities, and most college graduates will say that they got most of their education outside the classroom. Our graduates are criticised because they have not learned thoroughly the things which they are supposed to have learned. They are criticised because they have not always developed sound moral character to resist the temptations of life, because they have not acquired the ability to make a practical success in the world, and sometimes because they have not acquired the idealism which will make them subordinate practical success to the service of the public.

There is some truth in all these criticisms, but I think we can fairly make the point at this moment that our colleges are most under fire at the time when there is the greatest prospect of the most far-reaching and fundamental improvement. It is true that if one looks at the American college of today as it is, or rather as it seems to the superficial observer, the level is depressingly low. It is college life which fills most of the picture—clubs, societies, fraternities, athletic teams, organized cheering, hazing, rushing, tap days, amateur dramatics, oratorical contests, committees, newspapers, literary magazines, annuals, dances, house-parties and conventions—a long series of highly organized activities, enough to fill not merely the leisure but, indeed,

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all the time of the harassed undergraduate. Leisure is the one thing he never has—at any rate, if he aspires to be a big man in his college. For this undergraduate we should all of us here feel not contempt, nor quite admiration, but rather a deep sympathy—his life is so much like that of a college president. Like the college president he enters into it loyally, and does his part. Dutifully he tries out for teams (athletic or oratorical), or managerships, or editorial staffs; obediently he joins clubs, attends meetings, serves on committees, participates in drives, acts in plays, and in the intervals tries to get what he has been led by his elders to believe will be an education, by the process of accumulating a sufficient number of semester hours of credit to entitle him to the Bachelor's degree.

He did not originate our quantitative theory of culture. He takes it as he finds it, and often gets more out of it than its architects had any right to expect. He is not so much to be blamed as to be pitied if he makes bad choices under the elective system, and frequently falls a victim to the specious philosophy of "getting by." If a large part of his time is spent in keeping up with the Joneses, on behalf of himself or his fraternity or his social set, he might retort (but doesn't) that he could have learned that lesson from the padded catalogue of his Alma Mater, built upon the theory that every institution, no matter how limited its resources, should offer the same courses on every aspect of every department of knowledge that are offered by every other.

But such a picture as this overlooks one important fact—that is, the saving discontent which we all of us feel, students and teachers alike, with the empty hurly-burly of college life. This is, after all, the rubbish on the glacier: below it the current is flowing slowly but irresistibly in the direction of saner and more real values.

The chance observer does not notice the movement of a glacier, but it is possible quite definitely to measure it, and

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the life of this young association has already been long enough to mark encouraging progress. The clearest sign of this progress is, it seems to me, the fact that the race for numbers is over, and that the race for quality has begun. A few years ago our colleges and universities were competing for students, and great emphasis was laid upon "healthy growth." Now we are beginning to limit our numbers, to compete only for the best students, and to point with pride to the multitude that we turn away. This movement is only beginning. Not many institutions have as yet more properly qualified applicants than they can take, and one does not hear of first-rate students who are unable to get in anywhere, though many of them are not able to get into the college of their choice.

For many years the problem of the college and the university was what to do with the inferior student. Upon him were lavished all the cleverness and skill of which collegiate pedagogy was capable. His spelling and grammar were given first-hand treatment by a band of devoted instructors in freshman English, whose work had not a little in common with that of Red Cross nurses. He was especially coached in mathematics and the modern languages, sometimes by regular officers of the university, and sometimes by unlicensed but well-paid camp-followers. Cunning and not always unsuccessful attempts were made to enlist his languid interest in history and philosophy. If everything failed, at least part of the blame fell not upon him but upon his teachers who had not been able to accomplish that implicit aim of modern pedagogy to teach anything to anybody.

Now that too is beginning to change. The object of our solicitude in these days is beginning to be not the backward, but the unusual student, the undergraduate of more than ordinary ability and ambition, who is only anxious for tasks that will test his powers to the full. He is no less difficult to deal with, he is even more of a problem, but a problem

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that better repays solution. Again I must repeat that the change is only beginning and has already been not without opposition.

With all our belief in education, there is in the mind of the public at large a lingering distrust of intellectual excellence. I use the word "lingering" because it seems to me that this feeling is on the wane, but it still exists and it is the greatest enemy of all that we are doing—the enemy as Arnold would say of "sweetness and light." It shows itself in the overemphasis put by undergraduates and by the public on the social as contrasted with the intellectual values of higher education. It shows itself in the willingness of parents to allow and even to encourage their sons and daughters to waste in empty distractions so much of the time of those important years from twelve to seventeen, when they should be doing the reading that most of them will do then or not at all. It shows itself in the nervous dread which undergraduates have of specialization, which is only the fear that following out a definite intellectual interest as far as they can will put them "out of touch" with life.

Our large rewards in this country have in the past gone to "practical" men and our measure of values has too often been a material measure. The modern scientist has proved himself a veritable magician in assisting the practical man in the conquest of nature. Half a century ago Tyndall reproved us for accepting these gifts from science without realizing whence and how they came, and without making such provision for research as would ensure their continuance. The practical man no longer deserves this reproof. He has learned thoroughly well the lesson that Tyndall taught. The scientific research laboratories of many of our great industrial corporations shame those provided by the universities. The practical man himself has even caught from the scientist something of the spirit which exalts truth above its utility.

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For that revolution in public feeling we must thank the scientist, and to it we can credit no small share of the influence which is breaking down popular distrust of intellectual things and building up our civilization. For in the long run our civilization must be measured not by its material, but its intellectual and spiritual achievements; not by the wide extent of a low level of culture, but by the eminence of its mountain peaks.

Our task in this Association is to help each other to build up institutions which will render service to democracy in this high endeavor. Leaving it to the Association of American Universities and the Day of Judgment (which are two standardizing agencies, not one) to say how well we have done it, our task is to do it as well as we can. What is to be the college of the future—effective for the performance of this work?

In the first place I make bold to say that it will be well endowed, not so often by the multiplication of endowment drives, even with the aid of the admirable commercial organizations now available for assistance in such enterprises, as by the much safer method of computing endowment as so much per student and limiting enrolment to what is for a given institution its most effective size. There are some colleges and universities in this country now struggling along in poverty which would be wealthy at one-fourth their size. We have long considered growth a sign of success, but we may come to the time when “reducing” will be fashionable.

But the day is yet far distant when this country can safely cease to enlarge its educational facilities. And given adequate endowments I see no reason why our colleges should not continue to expand. It seems to me likely, however, that small colleges, when they do expand, will be more likely in the future to do it not by enlarging existing organizations, but by adding other units to them, federated, as are the colleges of Oxford and Cambridge.

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When the American father sends his son or daughter to college, he, or more likely his offspring, must choose between the advantages of a small college and those of a large university. There are tangible advantages in each which can not be found in the other. Whatever the choice, the youngster gains in some respects and loses in others. But the Englishman does not have to make any such choice. He becomes a member of a small college, of from two to four hundred, and gets all the advantages of life in a small group. He is at the same time, by virtue of his membership in his college, a part of a large university with all that that may mean. Some two or three American institutions have already announced plans of enlargement upon this system, and its advantages are so great that I predict their example will sooner or later be followed by many others.

In the third place, I feel sure that the college of the future will be more expensive. We college administrators have not yet learned to put a just price upon the instruction which we offer. We do not realize how small a part the tuition fee makes of the yearly expenses of the undergraduate. Thousands of American parents maintain their sons and daughters at college more cheaply than they could board them at home. The preparatory schools have been more alert in this respect and the expenses of some boys are cut in half when they go from school to college. A higher scale of fees need not hinder the poor boy or girl from getting an education. This should make possible more liberal scholarship help for the poor. Our present system makes many colleges a charity for the rich.

It goes without saying that saner financial arrangements will mean larger salaries for the members of our faculties. I am not one of those who would expect from larger salaries a marked improvement in the ability of our teaching staffs. Some improvement there will be, but in my opinion not much. Nor is much needed. If teaching attracts some of the poorest brains in the country, it also attracts its share of the best. We undervalue them because we underpay

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them. Nothing but the love of teaching and of scholarship is a justifiable motive for entering the teaching profession, and, given a living salary, that motive is sufficient.

The college of the future will, I think, modify the elective system in important respects. The choices will still be there, but they will be larger choices and once the larger choice is made, the details will be fixed by regulation. It will, I believe, put more emphasis upon accomplishment and less on hours of credit. We shall dethrone the registrar from his position as arbiter of culture. The college of the next generation will be less like a secondary school. It will assume more maturity in the student, allow him more freedom and insist upon more serious work. It will thus capitalize for intellectual purposes the independence and initiative for which undergraduates now find scope only in extra-curricular activities. It will, it goes without saying, give more special attention to the best students than to the poorest.

I believe that American colleges in the future will be more highly differentiated and less standardized than they are at present. With a less artificial and conventional view of education, we shall abandon the conception of an academic unit of credit, valid anywhere for any degree, and focus attention not upon the individual credit hour but upon the individual student, who is the more interesting individual of the two. We shall not try to be all things to all men, but shall have the courage to cultivate each our own field in our own way. The gain in interest and in all the human intangible sentimental accompaniments of education would be enormous, and would in my opinion far more than counterbalance whatever loss there might be in academic interchangeability.

No prophet should expect to be believed, whether in his own country or out of it, but I shall put a greater strain on your credulity than I have so far done, when I say in closing that I believe the college of the future will be an even more important institution than it is to-day.

II

A SECONDARY FUNCTION OF THE COLLEGE

JOHN R. EFFINGER

Coming out of our somewhat placid pre-war days, we still find ourselves after a decade of self-criticism in a state of uncertainty as to where the true road lies. Education, we are told, should be socialized and school-children everywhere are being trained for leadership. Educational experts are weighing and analyzing the mind of the child and successfully advancing the doctrine that the schoolboy should do the thing and study the thing that he likes to do best. Little girls rush in breathlessly at lunch time to ask their startled parents what their life work is going to be, as the principal has to know by one o'clock that afternoon. Teachers are busy giving intelligence tests and sorting the sheep from the goats. Interscholastic debating leagues send youthful speakers about the country to discuss the League of Nations or the government ownership of railroads. Boys' conferences assemble to deliberate upon the present status of Christianity. Psychology and economics are beginning to crowd out more venerable subjects in the high-school curriculum. Editorial duties in connection with the publication of the school annual are accepted in lieu of properly prepared lessons, and so on *ad infinitum*. When these leaders and debaters and editors troop to our colleges and begin their tasks, they find them distasteful and uninteresting, and, strange to say, difficult, and so we are asked, "What is the college going to do about it?"

This statement, while somewhat exaggerated, gives a fairly reliable impressionistic picture of many of the things we see when we look in the direction from which many of our students come. When we look at our colleges, everything is likewise in a state of confusion or a state of de-

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crepitude, if we are to believe our critics. Our entrance requirements are wrong, our marking systems are inaccurate, our courses are wrong, our examinations are wrong, and our teachers are incompetent, and as for the alumni, as a speaker said to a large gathering of students within the month, they are the prize exhibit. When he said the prize exhibit he did not mean the prize exhibit at all. I sometimes wonder whether or not the people who deal in general statements of that kind and follow them up with arguments aren't perhaps trying to prove a little too much. No wonder that Grant Showerman remarks that when the curriculum was being liberalized a generation ago, the literature of college discussion was relieved by hope, while to-day it is wholly the literature of disappointment.

Admitting the failure of the college as an institution to keep in perfect step with the present swift changes in our national life, it is perhaps some consolation to reflect that the college is not the only institution so at fault and that in politics and in religion there are quite audible sounds of discontent and signs of disaffection. Our whole state of society is in more or less of a condition of upheaval, and economic causes which could not be anticipated are prime factors in the situation. As the general problems are solved, the college problem should be in great measure solved, and in the solution of these problems the college itself must play a large part. To blame the college, independently, for showing the plain effects of what has happened to our whole social and political structure is unjust.

To attack the college separately as a detached objective and expect by changing methods and requirements and courses to solve it satisfactorily, is, in my humble opinion, expecting too much. We may in this way relieve some of the difficulties, and we should try by all means at our command to do so, but slow progress need not discontent us. Indeed, in this period when it will take more courage perhaps to be conservative than to be radical, the greatest wis-

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dom will be needed to keep us on the straight and narrow path. The panaceas of the new psychology of education are being widely heralded before they have been subjected to adequate scientific tests, but their acceptance is urged with insistence, in the name of science. Sometimes in our moments of doubt and uncertainty we catch a comforting vision of the Bellman in the "Hunting of the Snark" proclaiming confidently:

"Just the place for a Snark! I have said it thrice:
What I tell you three times is true,"

and our sense of humor makes life possible again.

That is not to say, by any means, that the discussion of present-day theories regarding needed educational reforms should not be taken seriously. On the contrary, each of us owes it to himself as well as to his institution to acquaint himself with the voluminous literature which this problem has called forth and adapt it to his needs. Not all institutions need the same thing and not all institutions can adopt immediately and with profit the things they need. As it has been clearly shown that honors courses need special conditions for success, so, for example, the orientation courses, which we are trying and considering, should not be attempted without the rare man or men competent to conduct them. We should be absolutely sincere in these matters and shun the gesture of reform and progressiveness, if we cannot make it effective.

Too much standardization is a menace. As President Aydelotte said in the preceding chapter, the American colleges of the future will probably be more highly differentiated and less standardized than they are to-day. In our eagerness to advance, let us do the right thing in the right place and withstand the temptation to do a thing because somebody else is doing it, without regard to the possibilities of the situation. Our colleges have more than once sinned in this direction in the past, and the numerous schools of

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journalism and advertising and commerce and secretarial science are proof of it.

It is one of the anomalies of the present situation that the vigorous criticism of the college of liberal arts comes at a time when, so far as physical equipment is concerned, it was never better prepared to do its work. We have evidently been unable to keep pace with our equipment. With Mark Hopkins at one end of a log and a student at the other, the conditions for a liberal education at one time were considered satisfied. With the log transformed into unions and dormitories and gymnasiums and field houses and stadiums and laboratories and libraries, it may be that some rare expectant student sometimes wonders, "Where the devil is Mark?" That does not mean that Mark is not present, but that the glittering physical things in this new world so captivate the eye and the attention that too many students put the wrong emphasis upon them. Everywhere fine teachers are at work with fine students, giving of their sympathy and skill and knowledge in unstinted measure and probably doing better teaching than has ever been done before. But not all of our present-day students are prepared to profit by it, unfortunately. Many of them come out of comparative illiteracy, and most of them, like the rest of the world, are so profoundly influenced by their material environment that old values appear to have lost some of their significance. It would seem that a large part of our present-day problem is to develop the technique which will enable us to restore old values to their true proportions and overcome the world of matter which we have helped to create. Perhaps the teacher must learn new ways, although that does not seem to be the only solution. Rather will it be found, I think, in exercising new pressure on the student, who now comes to us too often with little experience in real hard mental exercise.

Dr. Samuel Crothers once took as the title for one of his essays, "The Secondary Function of Literature," because

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he felt sure that violent discussion would arise if he presumed to speak on the *primary* function of literature, and so for the same reason I should like to suggest, while our age is adjusting itself and its people and its institutions to the new conditions and while we await the formula which will set the college right with the world, that the college in the interval assume as a purely secondary function the task of making students work, even to the extent of using uncouth and drastic methods. Experience has shown the most of us that more students fail because they do not work than for any other single reason. Investigation has also shown that the average student who satisfies minimum requirements has time to waste. Better mental training, harder study, less superficiality, are what young America needs. With the present craze for college, it would seem that the Lord has delivered this generation into our hands at the right time if we can teach it to work, and it would also seem that in the performance of this purely secondary function we might make a humble contribution toward the solution of America's problem. To do so we must make it clear at the outset that hard work is what we expect and then live up to our prospectus.

College standards have certainly been lowered in many places to meet present conditions, and the existing practice of using the class average as a passing grade is but one sign of this fact. If each one of us could return to our respective institutions with the firm determination to increase the average amount of work expected of our college students by at least ten per cent., whatever the present standards may be, I believe that a certain number of our students would thank us immediately and that a still larger number, in a short time, would acknowledge the wisdom of what had been done. I do not mean, add ten per cent. to what they are doing, but expect them to work ten per cent. harder in the things they are now studying.

Students are wise, if sometimes unwilling to be educated. They know, for the most part, that they could and should

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be made to work harder. For those who cannot or will not meet the increased requirement, the college should have no place. We can never, I believe, arrive at such accurate methods of admission that all those who enter will succeed. We have all known for some time that while you can educate some of the students all of the time and all of the students some of the time, it has never been possible to educate all of the students all of the time.

While others may seek and find the *primary* function of the college in its present state of unrest, may I leave with you, then, this modest *secondary* function, this idea that harder work may serve, until more refined and complicated methods have been evolved, as an old way to pay new debts.

III

THE EFFECTIVE COLLEGE HOME

KERR D. MACMILLAN

A recent visitor from overseas, here to study our educational methods, reported on his departure that there were two things in particular that had impressed him. The first was the great amount of attention we give to the opinions and wishes of our students and the other how little we do for them. There is a great deal of truth in this and of course there is a causal relation between the two. We are tremendously concerned about what the students wish, make love to them all the time, and give them practically all they ask for, whereas if we know our business we ought to lay before them a program vastly superior to anything they can propose.

Because we have allowed ourselves to drop down to the level of the students' wishes our colleges have become proportionately ineffective, and it is only as we regain control that we may expect them to be more effective. This does not mean that the students must be antagonized—very far from it. To antagonize the students might be even more unwise than to coddle them. And yet it is a question whether the indulgence of the students by the faculty and administration has not really resulted in an attitude toward the essential purposes of the college course that may fairly be called antagonism. But whatever is thought of this, certainly any plan for making the college more effective must engage their interest if it is to succeed. The remainder of this chapter is an endeavor to show how this may be done and in particular to point out two comparatively simple readjustments that would have far-reaching beneficial results.

That institution must be regarded as ineffective which, however large, however well endowed and equipped, how-

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ever successful in outward appearance, yet fails to capture the interest of the student for that for which it stands or does not put upon him during the four years of its course its permanent mark. And similarly a college may rightly be called effective which, however small, however poor and ill equipped, nevertheless interests him in the things for which it stands and moulds him accordingly. The phase of the discussion of the effective college that will be treated in this chapter is, therefore, how to bring the college, as an institution of learning, to bear effectively upon the students.

That our colleges are primarily institutions of learning no one will deny. But that learning is the primary interest of the students very few will affirm. It is very embarrassing to confess this, but it is a great deal better to do so as a preliminary to analyzing the situation and finding the remedy, than to pretend to shut our eyes to what is patent to all. Of course an "institution of learning" may be very differently defined, but regarded in terms of the student body our ideas and ideals will not diverge by much. What we wish to turn out of our colleges of liberal arts and sciences year after year is not bookworms or specialists. These are valuable by-products, but to attempt to pattern all the students on such models would be both futile and unwise. Nor do we wish to send out men and women whose best boast is that they have attended classes regularly, paid attention to the teacher and passed their examinations. Those that successfully stand a psychological memory test are almost as valuable as they. What we would like to do is send out young men and women who, first of all, have been trained to think steadily and carefully on any problem that is brought before them, and who think thus habitually. We wish them to have some information, too—very considerable information—about the complicated civilized world into which we are sending them. And finally, we would like them to approach this world of theirs and its problems with an attitude compounded of the clear, high thinking and in-

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tellectual honesty of the best Greeks, and the humility and sense of the rights of others and wrong in themselves that is our heritage from Palestine.

Judged by this standard we must confess that we fall far short of the ideal. With all our colleges and all their equipment we have not succeeded in bringing to bear on the student the forces that will make him the kind of man we would like him to be. We are like the big guns in modern warfare, made of the best material, 100 per cent. effective if used correctly, but useless unless properly loaded or without the proper range. Why is it that we do not do more damage with the big artillery of the colleges?

One reason for our ineffectiveness is that the students are so scattered we cannot hope even to aim at them, much less to hit them, with the full collegiate charge. They are all over the campus, in the fraternity houses, in the literary societies, the debating societies, the glee club, the editorial rooms of the college papers, on the football field, on the bleachers, playing tennis, and where-not. The modern undergraduate is very dispersed, almost scrambled. I would like to use the word dissipated, for in its original sense it describes his condition exactly. It is hard to find him. In fact we have to create quite a number of administrative officers, committees and machinery in order to see him at all, and when we do, we see him not as a human being but rather as a point indicated on a plotted curve or a number in a percentile grade.

Still worse, the average student is not only lost to the view of the college authorities, he is lost to himself. The students in our colleges are so numerous and the student body is so lacking in any sort of coherence that the individual feels himself in a crowd where he neither knows or is known. He is open to the lower appeals of the mob mind and has little or no leading to discover and develop what is best in himself. One who is lost in a crowd is lost to himself.

What is the cure? It is really very simple and has es-

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caped attention only because we have been over-busy with other things. There is nothing that will so effectually bring the average individual up out of the crowd as putting him in a smaller group where he will feel at home, that is to say where he will be constantly conscious of knowing all his fellows and of being known by them. The proper number for such a group depends upon several factors, such as the age of the members, the purpose of the grouping, etc., and may be found by experiment. But for youths in their late teens coming together for the purpose of liberal education it has long been known to be in the neighborhood of two hundred. With many more than this the unity of the group is impaired. The first thing to do is to break up the great masses of students into groups of this size.

An essential part of this grouping is that each group be housed in its own home with its own residential dean and perhaps other resident members of the faculty. And like any other home, the college home is to be as compact as possible and provide satisfaction for as many as possible of the interests of youth. No home, whether collegiate or private, is worthy of the name, that compels the members of the family to sleep in one building, to go to another for meals, to another to entertain guests, and to another to read or mingle with other members of the family. The house regulations also should be like those of any other home, allowing great liberty within the walls, but frowning severely on tardiness, late hours or unexplained absence. Fortunately there are plenty of collegiate homes already in existence to serve as proof that such a thing is possible and as examples for us to follow.

The advantages of a small group housed in a single home are many, but they all depend on a central fact of great importance, namely, that a group of this kind will create and maintain a high *esprit de corps*, an undefinable unity of feeling, sympathy and interest that will dominate the last and least member of the group. With such unity of control

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a group of two hundred can be known, observed, regulated and guided as the individual cannot be when his interests and loyalties are divided as they generally are to-day. Moreover such a group will very quickly assimilate a freshman class of one third of their own number. For it is obvious that for their mutual benefit all classes should be represented in each group. The freshmen will be caught in the current of the college life before Christmas, or certainly before the end of their first year.

Another thing, a group of this kind will effectively assimilate foreigners. I invite you to consider how the English handled the Rhodes scholars in Oxford University. They thought about it long and carefully. They decided the best way to get hold of these foreigners was to distribute them as thinly as possible among the many small colleges, the average size of the Oxford college being fewer than two hundred. We know what the result has been. Everyone of our American Rhodes scholars has come back with an English accent and some of them even have the Oxford gobble.

We have a similar experiment going on in New York City in the International House which the generosity of Mr. John D. Rockefeller, Jr., made possible. Here the foreigners are brought together, live together, mingle together and are brought intimately into touch with a few outstanding American students and members of the faculty. Probably it is the best that could be done under the circumstances, but to my mind the English method is far better, far more effective, and has already proved its effectiveness. I doubt if the International House can yet be said to have done that much.

In a group such as we are considering the best opinion will dominate. The best element of the student body in most of our colleges is represented by the American stock. We say to ourselves that we wish we could get all of them together and bring the force of their personality to bear

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upon the persons and opinions of the others who are not yet used to our morals and institutions. Well, if we divide them into small groups of this kind and distribute the foreigners among them, we will get that effect with very little interference on the part of the administration. The students themselves will take care of it. We can be sufficiently sure of our traditions and our American stock to feel that our boys and girls are quite able to hold their own against all this present invasion from overseas.

Again, the college home solves the freshman problem to a great extent. The freshman comes up to college just at the time when he is impatient of authority, either of parents or of teachers and without any conception that deference should be paid to a college president, a college dean or the members of the faculty. But he is also at that time in the hero-worshipping stage, and the hero he worships is the member of the senior class. If we house them together the freshman will immediately be brought into contact with the whole body of seniors living in his group and will not dare do anything which the seniors think improper. He will soon be knocked into shape by his contact with the seniors, juniors and sophomores.

The small group will not be troubled with the problem of fraternities, for it will drive them out of the field. The fraternities are a very good thing. They are doing what the college should have done long ago. They are making homes for their men to live in and therefore around them gathers the love of the members as the love of the students does not gather around the college. A fraternity man thinks first of his fraternity and next of his college or his university. The fraternities already have this *esprit de corps* that we find in a small institution of two hundred and for the same reason, namely, that they have a home. The members all write Christmas cards to all the others. They all take out insurance in favor of the fraternity. They learn all the names of the great men that ever belonged to the fraternity.

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They learn all the names of the chapters from the very beginning down to modern times, and recite them before they are formally initiated.

What college would dare to handle its freshmen in that way? Yet if we could we should gain the loyalty which now goes to the fraternity and we should create an interest in the things of the college which we do not now have in our student body. To do this we must provide a college home, for where a home is provided for students there is no need and therefore no excuse for fraternities. With the disappearance of the fraternities disappears also that social cleavage which appears wherever they are allowed. With two hundred young women, two hundred young men, in one common college home, they are bound to be democratic, they cannot help it, such is the constitution of youth.

Another advantage of the small group is that we would have two or more sister institutions under one common administration, which could be used for comparative educational experiments. We could have intramural games between them, common prizes for them to strive after, not only in athletics, but also in literary and scientific work. In fact, we could have all the good that comes from friendly rivalry.

Finally, there is the general culture that comes from rubbing elbows with other people which constitutes a large part of what students get in college. It is accelerated if we put them together in a college home and compel them to eat together, sleep together, play together, knock against one another a hundred times a day. They learn how to get along with others which is in itself a liberal education.

A second fault in our present college is that when we do hit the students they don't seem to know it. In other words, there is something wrong with the charge in this gun of ours. When our students escape from us—become alumni—they don't show the slightest sign, hardly a scar, of what they have come through. Well, is it any wonder? For what else do we mean by our present method of

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teaching and examining? Do we not proclaim to our students that perfection is not only attainable but actually expected of them? We give some of them 100 per cent. in the examinations, others 95 per cent., high honor, and decorate them with watch keys when we send them out. And yet those students may not have done more than a minimum of thinking. They may have won high honors and Phi Beta Kappa by merely sitting in class, taking down what the professor said, and reproducing it on the examination paper. I suppose we are all willing enough to confess our faults in that respect.

There is one slight adjustment that would make a big change. Let both student and teacher be given to understand that the student will be examined not on what the teacher has said and not on a textbook, but on a subject, and that the examination will not be held at the end of every week or at the end of every semester, but when he has had time to work and think, at the end at least of a year, sometimes at the end of two years, and possibly more. And, still more important, let them know that the examination will not be given by the teacher. We are, I think, the only country where the same individual does the teaching and the examining for a degree. We don't allow it for our higher degrees, at least I hope no institution does—I don't know of any. For our Master's degree and for our Doctor's degree we would never think of having the candidate examined by the teacher who has brought him along, but for the B.A. we still adhere to high-school methods of having the same one act as teacher and examiner.

It would not be very hard to make this change. It has already been done in some institutions and quite successfully. The chief difficulty would arise in the smaller colleges where the faculty is not sufficiently numerous to provide different teachers and examiners. This could be easily overcome if two or more such institutions should agree to exchange professors for the purpose of examining.

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As to the grading—never give a man 100 per cent. Never write examination questions that can be answered so as to get 100 per cent. That is what makes the students think unconsciously that the whole thing is on such a low level. They are not satisfied with that kind of attainment in the things that they do for themselves. Let the examination questions be formulated in such fashion as to show the student that they are far beyond what he knows. Let them act as an incentive to him to find out more; make him wish that he could do better than he does. And then, when the papers are examined, give first-grade or first-class honors to a first-rate mind doing first-rate work. That is not a hard thing to recognize; it is very seldom found. To a second-rate mind doing first-class work, or to a first-rate mind doing second-grade work, give second grade, and give nothing but a pass to all others.

There has been no attempt in this chapter to explore all the factors entering into the complicated problem of the effective application of college ideas to the student—to do that would take us too far afield. But the writer feels sure from his own experience and observation both here and elsewhere that a great many of the difficulties now constantly confronting our colleges would be greatly ameliorated, if they did not disappear entirely, if we could, in some such way as he has proposed, first of all put our students into healthy, congenial, well-regulated college homes, and then require of them more—a great deal more—solid thinking.

IV

THE COLLEGE WITHIN THE UNIVERSITY*

MAX MASON

We have under discussion the well-known undergraduate problem which, in a way of caricature, may be described as the problem of what we can do to change the attitude of students who come to an institution and seem to say to the faculty and administrative officers, "Well, here I am. What are you going to do to me?" Part of the problem is the general attitude of America toward scholarship—understanding the life of the scholar, and appreciation of the tangible values of scholarship. America is learning more and more to value scholarship, but there is still in the air, to a considerable degree, a higher appreciation of that type of ability which arises on the spur of the moment without previous training.

Nevertheless I believe that the students come to our colleges and universities with more idealism and serious purpose than we have been giving them credit for. Some of the undergraduates find the way and obtain a real insight into the life of a scholar—a real appreciation of values, of training—and lead lives subsequently which have been moulded by their college experience. A large number lose the way rather than find it, and I think that a good many leave college with the edge of their curiosity dulled rather than sharpened. Certainly we do not wish to think of our higher educational system as in any wise a machine to dull the curiosity of students.

Our methods are peculiar if we think of them as applied to young men and women with maturity; yet the young men and women of to-day are coming to college at about the ages of our grandfathers and grandmothers when they came to

* Stenographic report.

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the Middle West and went on further, when they hewed their way into the wilderness and made of it a civilized country.

Many of our methods seem to be based upon the thought that students come to college to resist an education. I want to tell a story bearing upon that thought. One time in camp we had a collie that became ill. A veterinary surgeon told me that I should give the dog a dose of castor oil. I had given the children castor oil; so I thought I knew pretty well the attitude of mind that the dog was going to have toward the process. I prepared accordingly, and had the older boy hold his back, the younger one hold his front paws, and the little girl hold his head. There was the dog, unhappy because he didn't know what was going to happen to him. I had a large tablespoonful of castor oil, which I slipped between his jaws, and the poor dog could do nothing but gulp the castor oil down. Our operation was successful. The children released the dog, and with joy at his freedom he danced around, barked, and came up to me wagging his tail. I still held the tablespoon in my hand. He smelled the castor oil on the spoon, licked it all off, and then hunted for drops all over the ground.

I am impressed by the fact that in America there is a lack of the economic urge to excellence of scholarly performance compared with the situation in Europe. There is a greater belief in the correlation between attainment in curricular activity and subsequent success in life in Europe than there is in America, and that is going to be the case for some time. We shall lack that stimulation for real performance. I am impressed by the fact that it is largely those students more favored in their lives before they come to the university who are most readily diverted from the purpose of scholarship. Those who are personally attractive find the social side of college life most enticing; they have more opportunities to go away from scholarship. The results are unfortunate. Scholarship tends to be looked

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upon in undergraduate circles as the refuge of the socially unfavored. We must not overvalue the genial, pleasant personality. But we should not undervalue it either, nor leave it to those who intend to become bond salesmen. We wish our own faculty, our representatives of scholarship, to have that broad type of mind, that pleasant demeanor, that sympathy with others which gives value to the sort of personality that I am speaking about and we must make scholarship attractive to young men of this type.

I am much interested in any methods which will not leave scholarship to those who are automatically interested in it at an early age, for I believe that an urge to intense performance in the scholarly manner cannot be expected of the normal American youth under present conditions on entering college—certainly not a great urge to the scholarly life as a profession.

What new administrative measures, what new slant toward the undergraduate problem, may one take and should one take in a university devoted to creative scholarship? Is it Mark Hopkins and the log over again or is there another possibility? If we could find a sufficient number of Mark Hopkinses (the logs are everywhere, of course) our problem would be very simple. The fact that we can't find enough of them makes me wonder if we haven't at present a type of machine that it takes a genius to administer. It takes a Mark Hopkins to teach in the way we are trying to teach now. The genius can teach, but that is poor argument for our present methods because a genius can do anything, I suppose. If the telephone to-day required, for successful operation, as high an ability as the usual teaching method, none of us would use telephones because we would have to have a man with years of graduate work in physics right there at the telephone all the while to keep it in adjustment.

We value an instrument as we value a method, according as it is under broad circumstances efficient, not merely when in the hands of genius. If it is the universal cry that we

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must have a genius in order to teach successfully, one thing to do is to go out and find geniuses. Those of us who have tried know that there isn't a chance of succeeding in a wholesale fashion. The other way is to seek some other method by which the students may learn. It takes the genius, we all admit, to teach a student, but you can't keep a youngster from learning, if he wants to. I knew a college professor, a man of great attainment, who taught for twenty years. He had a son of his own who reached college age. I used to ask him about the boy, and without any thought that he was making any comment on the teaching profession, this man said to me, "I am awfully discouraged. He is a nice boy, but I can't tell him anything. Here I have gone through this life and I wanted to make my experiences valuable to that young man. I can't tell him anything; he has got to do it by himself."

He had been teaching twenty years when he said that, and he never questioned the value of "telling" his students.

Students are continually being told. Of course they are given problems at the same time, but the problems are often of the kind that makes you believe they really should be stated in the subjunctive mood. They are far removed from reality. Think of finding the cost of apples in the manner that is made classic by the algebras. They say, "If I had bought them for ten cents more per dozen than I would have got them for if I had paid seventy-five cents less per dozen than I paid last year, they would have cost so much apiece." No one would make sales under those circumstances.

We learn rapidly and thoroughly when we need the knowledge for real use. In Göttingen, at the time I was a student, there was a large American colony divided about evenly between those who came to the university to study some specific subject, such as the sciences, and those who came to study German. At the end of about six months the ones who came there to study something else in Germany

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were more conversant and fluent in German than those who came there to study the language. I observed it each year. There is a possibility of gearing knowledge to the study of real problems that we miss in college life. I am wondering to what extent the university as a problem-solving institution might institute within itself a college of somewhat different temper of performance than that of the usual college to-day.

I say "problem-solving." I don't like to use the word "research" at every turn. I think that there are a great many crimes committed in the name of research. We ask questions; we answer them. That, we say, is research. But what questions we ask is the important point.

I recall a friend of mine who went to a spiritualist séance one evening and had this experience. They were to get answers from table rappings. One of them asked a question in regard to a departed friend and said, "Is John in heaven?" The answer came, one rap. Then they happened to think they hadn't established the code. So they said, "Does that mean yes?" And the answer came again, one rap. There is a question and there is an answer and you can make it mean almost anything you want.

Some research is of that type. Some research is done just for the sake of doing research. But I am thinking of a university which is solving real problems.

There are two institutes that constitute a university; an institute of natural science and an institute of human behavior. That there are vital problems in these fields, nobody doubts. So we will say first that we are supposing the problems in this university to be well chosen. I think that the most important feature of a university is the determination of its research program.

Let us suppose, then, that we have in a university, consisting of such a pair of institutes, a group of men competent to solve problems. Then within that university we find three types of activities. We find the solution of problems

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going on. We find students who are obtaining the technique for the solution of such problems, and furthermore we find that there must be general information on the thought of the world obtained by the students.

It is far more important, though, that they should form a habit of obtaining it than that they should obtain it while in college.

The idea I want to bring out is that much of this "getting the habit" of obtaining information can be left to the student, and that much of the obtaining of a technique for solving problems can be left to the student if the student has any interest in doing either of those two things, and that the research activity of the university can furnish the interest.

I am suggesting that the problem-solving activity of the university can be utilized to determine the whole spirit of performance of the students within it. I believe that real education is that of participation and that education by participation is an experiment well worth trying.

I believe that undergraduate students in large numbers can be stimulated to an appreciation of scholarship and to independent study, by participating in even the humblest capacity in the solution of important problems. It is better than course-taking for a student to carry the notebook of a real scholar, to help him in any mechanical way, writing down data, turning switches, telephoning, doing anything which throws him into intimate contact with a man doing a fundamental problem. If he has that opportunity of participation in the research in a university, you can't keep him from finding out the things that the books print.

We must get over the idea that students cannot read. They not only can read, but they do read when they want to. I feel that the senior college students, that is juniors and seniors, may well have one-third to one-half of their work a mere assignment to a place in a department doing creative work together with an assignment as an assistant—

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as a hewer of wood and a drawer of water—to somebody who has a real problem in hand. Most of the men who are doing creative work in science or humanities know that they became interested by virtue of some such intimate contact as that.

We want to make the students feel that they have a place in the problem-solving game.

I heard the other day a true story regarding a boy who many years ago was given five cents at the time that bread was five cents a loaf, to buy anything he wanted for himself. This youngster walked the streets with his mother looking for something on which to spend the five cents. After an hour's deliberation he bought a loaf of the same bread that they had on their table three times a day, and he took it home. The mother was astonished because of all things on the table that boy disliked bread most. He goes down with five cents—real money, no restrictions—and he buys a loaf of the bread that he wouldn't eat. He took it home. They sat down to supper and the boy didn't want anything else; he wanted to eat his bread. After every mouthful of bread he said, "My, isn't that good bread?"

The idea, then, is to have the students feel that they have an opportunity for participation. The activity that they see around them is the stimulus that they want, so that they may go back to their rooms and their studies and read the carefully prepared books that scholars have devoted so much attention to, removing nine-tenths of the difficulty so that they can be read without assistance. Books—carefully written textbooks—are on every hand.

If we take that into account, it seems to me that a university had best consist of a group of personalities capable of inspiring curiosity and the physical equipment to enable the students to satisfy curiosity.

The suggestion is very simple. It is to give the students a job, to get them into the game.

I have one more experience to speak of. I was much interested sometime ago by the fact that out of a small college

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came a very large number of students who wished to specialize in a certain science. I wondered how it happened that from this particular college so many men in that particular field obtained the incentive—the curiosity—so that they wanted to go on. I thought that the man who was leading them into that course must be a great scholar and a great teacher. I afterward met the man. I found that he was not a great scholar. He had not had opportunities to be one, and he had not the temperament for it. I had occasion to observe his teaching and found his teaching was rather dull. There was a puzzle. Why did these students come from that particular institution interested in the subject? I found that it was his habit each year to choose two of the brighter looking youngsters who were in the sophomore class, as assistants. He gave them desks in the department rooms and told them that they were to help. This was to be their home, and they were to come in and live there. These men who had been going into advanced work and who had made fine records outside, had been men who had not been taught. They had been men who had been given a place in a laboratory with a job to do and who taught themselves.

You say, "What about a broad cultural training under such circumstances?" Culture like happiness is obtained by indirection, and we must have first of all curiosity to stimulate the student for himself.

I hope that in the research and problem-solving activity of a university there may be found that stimulating interest which may serve to create a desire on the part of students to train themselves.

How many students could we handle by this method? I believe vastly more than we believe possible at the present time. The graduate students participate in the problems of the university, pursuing their investigations independently. Certainly the honor students in junior and senior years may all be assigned to departments, as assistants to groups of men working creatively in different fields, and be allowed to participate to a considerable degree.

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I am impressed by the fact that this system is already in a large measure in operation at the University of Chicago. Many men are continually selecting undergraduates and giving them a chance at the big game. The results when that is done seem to me to justify much greater experimentation than has been the case in the past.

I speak, then, of the college within the university, of one stimulated not merely indirectly by the fact that the members of the staff are solving problems, but directly because we assign many students to problems whereby they educate themselves by virtue of their interest.

Here is a simple thing to say, hard to do—a general viewpoint expressed many times before—but I don't believe that it ever has been tried consistently. I hope that we can make such a trial.

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SECOND PART

THE EFFECTIVE COLLEGE CURRICULUM

Chapter

V. College Entrance Requirements

Clyde Furst

VI. Remaking the College Curriculum

Robert L. Kelly

Bibliography

V

COLLEGE ENTRANCE REQUIREMENTS

CLYDE FURST

College entrance requirements are the complex result of many factors, intricately related. These involve: the desire of students to go to college and the desire of parents and friends to have them go; the success of students in making evident their ability, accomplishment, and aptitude, either informally to their teachers through a considerable period of years, or at a given place and hour in a formal examination or test; the careful or informal judgment of teachers and advisers as to the character and promise of students; the reasoned or traditional views of examiners concerning methods of judging student ability and prospects; the entire system of social ideals and desires as to what schools and colleges and other educational agencies can and should do for students and the public welfare; the belief of schools that they should provide whatever curricula they believe to be best for their students, and that such curricula should admit students to college, the school curricula thus dominating those of the college; the belief of colleges that they should provide whatever curricula they believe to be best for their students, fix their entrance requirements accordingly, and thus dominate the curricula of the schools; the desire of schools to be able to send all of their students to college, conflicting with the desire to send only those that will do the school most credit; the desire of colleges, at times, to secure the largest possible number of students, and the ability of colleges at other times to select from a larger number of applicants than they can accommodate; the desire of all concerned to give each student every consideration, frequently made ineffective by such great numbers of students that no one can be given adequate consideration. Probably the only way in which these and sundry similar influences can be observed and appraised clearly is by approaching them in something like chronological order.

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Requirements for entering the various universities and colleges in the United States were, from their beginning until very recently, highly individualistic, in respect to both quantity and kinds of preparation. Only within the present generation have these requirements come to be understood as representing relations among college, school, student, and public that should recognize the interests of all as fully as possible, particularly in the matters of reasonably high standards and reasonable uniformity or equivalence.

The origin of the new tendency appears to have been the definition of a college adopted by the New York State Department of Education in 1895. This included the qualification that such an institution "should require for admission not less than the usual four years of academic or high school preparation, or its equivalent, in addition to the pre-academic or grammar school studies." It is easy to forget how great a change was brought about by the general adoption of this definition. Less than half a dozen universities and colleges in the South had such a requirement in 1905 and only two of all the state universities in the country had such a requirement in 1909. Only fifty institutions announced such a requirement in 1908, one hundred in 1911, three hundred in 1913.¹ Since 1918 it has become practically universal. During the same period there was a progressive abandonment of the preparatory schools that were conducted by colleges and a steady decrease in the number of students who were admitted without fulfilling all of the announced requirements. Whereas, in 1907, more than half of the students who were admitted to Harvard, Yale, Columbia and Princeton fell short in some particular, only 14 per cent. of all the students admitted to college in the Middle Atlantic States in 1924 were entered with conditions.¹

Meanwhile the excessive variety in the details of entrance requirements was becoming intolerable to the schools and

¹ Carnegie Foundation, Sixteenth Annual Report, 1921, pages 73-81. See also note 5.

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embarrassing to the colleges. The schools were obliged to conduct almost as many curricula as there were colleges for which students were being prepared. The colleges found it increasingly difficult to secure students who were prepared to meet their peculiar requirements. Between 1880 and 1900 all of the regional associations of colleges and secondary schools, many such associations in the several states, and numerous other representative organizations recommended greater uniformity in entrance requirements.

A general improvement in this direction began with the inauguration of the College Entrance Examination Board in 1900. It invented the simple device of a college entrance unit, representing the amount of work accomplished in one period a day throughout a year in a good secondary school—sixteen units representing a complete secondary curriculum—and conveniently translated into these units the recommendations of representative associations devoted to the separate subjects, such as English, the classics, mathematics, and history. These devices were approved by the National Conference Committee on Standards of Colleges and Secondary Schools in 1906, and were thereafter rapidly adopted throughout the country. Their use by the Carnegie Foundation in its studies of universities and colleges caused them to be spoken of frequently as “Carnegie units.”

These measures proved of service in the interests of both precision and flexibility. A survey of the admission requirements in 1912 and in 1920 of the 125 universities and colleges that were approved by the Association of American Universities in 1918² made clear the following facts. The

² Information for 1912 based largely upon U. S. Bureau of Education Bulletin 7, 1913, by Clarence M. Kingsley. Information for 1920-21 collected for the Association of American Colleges (Bulletin VII: 2, March, 1921); the College Entrance Examination Board (Meeting of April 16, 1921); the National Conference Committee on Standards of Colleges and Secondary Schools (Proceedings, March 10, 1921; School Life, VI: 8, April 15, 1921; School Review, XXIX: 6, June, 1921); and the New England Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools (Meeting of April 1, 1921).

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proportion of these institutions that had a single set of requirements for admission to all of their academic college curricula had increased from one-half to two-thirds. The absolute prescription of certain subjects for college entrance, although varying in different sections of the country, had decreased in quantity from eight to seven of the fourteen and a half to fifteen and a half units required for entrance. The proportion of the requirement devoted to alternate subjects, such as Latin or Greek, physics or chemistry, increased from two and one-half to three units. The proportion of the requirement allotted to elective subjects, to be chosen at will from a considerable list, increased from three and one-half to four units. The proportion of units representing an absolutely free choice of subjects increased from one-half to one and one-half units. All of these movements were in the direction of greater flexibility in the requirements of the colleges and greater freedom for the schools. Many state universities have now adapted their curricula to the belief of the public schools that their teaching should be determined by the needs of the nine-tenths of their students who do not go to college and that their graduates should be admitted to college no matter what they have studied in school.

The entrance requirements in 1920 differed somewhat in various groups of institutions. Those belonging to the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, the Association of Urban Universities and the National Association of State Universities had the smallest proportion of prescribed subjects, 41 per cent., and the largest proportions of free units, 15 per cent., 12 per cent., and 11 per cent., respectively. Institutions belonging to the College Entrance Examination Board and the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Middle States and Maryland had the largest proportion of prescribed subjects, 50 per cent., and a small proportion of free units, 3.5 per cent. and 4.6 per cent., respectively. Institutions be-

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longing to the New England Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools and the New England College Entrance Certificate Board prescribed 50 per cent. and 48 per cent. of their requirement, but allowed 8 per cent. of entire freedom. The colleges of the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Southern States occupied a middle position of prescribing only 45 per cent., but allowing only 2 per cent. of absolute freedom.

With regard to the relative importance attributed to various subjects there was no change between 1912 and 1920 in the order of those most frequently prescribed, namely, English, mathematics, Latin, and the history-civics-economics group. These represented 90 per cent. of all prescriptions in 1912 and 94 per cent. in 1920. For prescribed, alternate, and elective subjects taken together the order was the same, and German and French came next, both in 1912 and 1920. The continued predominance of traditional subjects, the continued preference of German over French, and the small emphasis given to science and to vocational subjects, are all noteworthy.

The importance attributed to the several subjects in 1920 varied with the groups of institutions. Among the prescribed subjects, English was first and mathematics second in all of the groups. Foreign languages were third in the Middle States, Examination Board, the New England, and the Southern Association colleges; fourth in the New England Certificate and Urban groups, and fifth in the State and North Central institutions. History was third with the North Central, State, Urban, and New England Certificate groups; fourth with all of the others. Science was the least frequent subject in all of the groups except the North Central and State associations, where it held fourth place. Taking prescriptions, alternates, and electives together, all groups gave first place to English and second place to mathematics, except the Middle States institutions, which placed foreign languages second. The New England Asso-

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ciation, Examination Board, and Southern institutions placed foreign languages third; the Certificate Board and Urban universities placed them fourth; the North Central and State universities places them fifth. History was third with the Certificate Board, North Central, State, and Urban groups, fourth with the others. Science was last, except in the State universities, which placed foreign languages there. Among the foreign languages, Latin was everywhere the favorite. German was still next in popularity; French next, quite closely; Greek next, and Spanish last.

Studies of the actual working of entrance requirements have been made for considerable groups of students—8,826 who matriculated in 1921 in forty institutions belonging to the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Southern States,³ 6,649 matriculating in 1922 in twenty institutions in Massachusetts,⁴ and 15,389 matriculating in 1924 in seventy-nine institutions belonging to the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Middle States and Maryland.⁵ Both comparisons and summaries of these studies are suggestive.⁶

Of these matriculants in the Middle States 66 per cent. were men, as compared with 65 per cent. in the Southern States and 64 per cent. in Massachusetts. The average age of all matriculants was 18.9 years in Massachusetts, 18.5 years in the other sections. The average age of the men matriculants was 19.1 years in Massachusetts, 18.7 in the Middle, and 18.6 in the Southern States; that of the women 18.6 years in Massachusetts, 18.4 in the Southern, and 18.2 in the Middle States. Previous graduation from a secondary school was reported by 90 per cent. of the matriculants

³ Twenty-sixth Proceedings, 1921, pages 135-151.

⁴ Report of the Legislative Commission on Higher Education in Massachusetts, House Document 1700, 1923, pages 71-84, 312-321.

⁵ Thirty-ninth Proceedings, 1926, pages 52-77.

⁶ Association of American Colleges Bulletin, Volume VII, Number 2, March, 1921; IX, 4, November, 1923; X, 3, May, 1924; XII, 4, November, 1926.

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in the Middle States and 89 per cent. of the Southern matriculants, but for only 50 per cent. of those in Massachusetts. Admission was wholly on the basis of certificates in 97 per cent. of the Southern matriculations, 79 per cent. of those in the Middle States, and 46 per cent. of those in Massachusetts. In Massachusetts 21 per cent. were admitted with conditions, in the Southern States 18 per cent., in the Middle States 14 per cent. The average requirement for entrance was 15.5 units in Massachusetts, 15 in the other regions. Of these units the Southern institutions prescribed 51.5 per cent., the Middle States 49 per cent., Massachusetts 44.5 per cent. There were recommended, as alternate or elective subjects, 46 per cent. in the South, 45 per cent. in the Middle States, 40 per cent. in Massachusetts. Massachusetts allowed 15.5 per cent. entire freedom, the Middle States 6 per cent., the Southern 2.5 per cent.

A comparison of the subjects prescribed and recommended by the colleges and those presented for entrance by matriculants in these colleges indicates that as the colleges grew more liberal in their requirements their matriculants offered an increasing excess of work over the requirements in the traditional subjects, took little advantage of the opportunity to present vocational subjects, and used but a small part of the entire freedom of choice allowed them. Thus, in response to a prescription of English amounting to about 20 per cent. of the entire entrance requirement in each group of institutions the matriculants in each group devoted more than 20 per cent. of the units that they presented to English. Mathematics represented in each group about 18 per cent. of the requirement; in each group the matriculants offered more than the prescription and the recommendation in that subject. The combined prescription and recommendation in history were 7 per cent. in Massachusetts, 8 per cent. in the Middle, and 10 per cent. in the Southern States; of the units presented 11 per cent., 13 per cent., and 19 per cent. were in this subject. A simi-

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lar relation prevailed in foreign languages and science. On the other hand, although Massachusetts allowed 20 per cent., the Middle States 17 per cent., and the Southern States 15 per cent. of the requirement to be met by subjects that have not been mentioned, the students chose to offer only 1 per cent., 9 per cent., and 5 per cent., respectively, in such subjects. The representative average program of secondary work presented by 30,864 students for matriculation and accepted by 139 representative institutions in 1921, 1922, and 1924, was made up of four units of Latin, three each of English and of mathematics, two each of French and of history, and one each of physics and of chemistry.

A large measure of individuality still prevails among universities and colleges in the administration of their entrance requirements. The great majority have always depended primarily upon a certified record from the secondary school of what the student had accomplished in that institution. A small number of the oldest and best known institutions, located in the North Atlantic States, have depended primarily upon examinations conducted by the college or some other agency separate from the school. Recently there have been combinations of these two methods, more of the certifying colleges adding examinations to their certificates and a considerable number of the examining colleges adding certificates to their examinations. Meanwhile, both certificates and written examinations have been increasingly supplemented by psychological examinations similar to those that were developed in classifying the members of the United States Army during the World War. Even more recently the personal recommendations of students that have been required by most colleges and the character ratings and personal interviews that have been required by a few have been developing in the direction of scientific appraisals. All of this is in harmony with the tendency to make the whole procedure of admissions more professional. A recent study of such procedure in the insti-

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tutions belonging to the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Middle States⁷ shows that while many institutions still entrust these matters to committees, the larger institutions are much more apt to entrust them to a single expert officer.

The College Entrance Examination Board is the center for the perhaps 5 per cent. of the students of the country who enter college by examination. In 1901 the Board gave 7,889 examinations to 973 candidates from 237 different schools; in June, 1927, it gave 74,958 examinations to 22,384 candidates from 1,976 schools. It is scarcely possible to imagine a more representative, impartial, and adequate method of preparing, giving, and marking written examinations. Both those who believe in such examinations and those who do not are agreed that the work of the College Entrance Examination Board may be taken as an epitome of the merits and limitations inherent in the nature of written examinations. The Board's examinations are based upon the standards of representative organizations in the several academic fields, such as the National Conference on Uniform Requirements in English, the American Historical Association, the American Philological Association, and the Modern Language Association. The papers in the several subjects are prepared by committees of examiners, and approved or amended by a committee of revision, in the light of the experience of the Board's readers in the different subjects, and of public comment on earlier examinations, all of which are published after they are given. These various groups of examiners, revisers, and readers are all made up of men and women teachers, experienced in both schools and colleges, in various parts of the country.

The operations of the Board, at its request and with its cooperation, have been twice examined by the Carnegie Foundation. In 1923⁸ its organization and administration

⁷ Fortieth Proceedings, 1927.

⁸ Reprint from the minutes of the Board, April 21, 1923.

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were pronounced remarkably efficient and economical. The average age of the candidates varied from a minimum of 17 in 1918 to a maximum of 18 in 1920, the median ages from a minimum of 17.5 in 1919 to a maximum 18.4 in 1920. About one-third had come from public schools. Originally most of the candidates came from the Middle States; those from New England began to predominate in 1910; the number of those from other parts of the country have increased since 1919. Two-thirds of the examiners who prepared the papers have been from New England, one-third from secondary schools. Elaborate statistical study showed no relation between the proportion of examiners from any region and the proportion of successful candidates from the same region. Of the whole number of examinations taken, the proportion that was devoted to the subject of English remained stationary, it increased in history and mathematics, doubled in science, decreased considerably in ancient languages and somewhat in modern languages. Beginning with 1915 the Board has provided comprehensive examinations for the convenience of those colleges that allow students to choose several subjects, usually four, for extensive examinations, instead of more limited tests in every subject that they present for entrance. This "New Plan" is adopted by from 12 to 16 per cent. of the candidates. Since 1916 there has been an increase in the proportion of candidates who have passed and of those who have passed with good and with very good marks. The readers of the examination books were at first chiefly from the Middle States; now about one-half are from New England. Originally two-thirds were from colleges, now two-thirds are from secondary schools. The proportion of women among the readers has increased from one-fifth to one-fourth. No relation was found between the proportion of readers from any region and the proportion of candidates from that region who passed, or between the proportion of readers from secondary schools and the proportion of candidates who passed.

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Although sundry readers have served for long terms, the increase in the number of readers has kept the average term of service down to three or four years. There appeared to be no relation between the proportion of experienced readers in specific subjects and the proportion of candidates who passed in those subjects, or between the proportion of students passing in any subject and the number of books read by the average reader in that subject. Concluding with the weather, there appeared to be but little relation between relatively high or low temperature during the periods when books were written and read and the proportion of candidates who passed at those times. In fine, extensive and minute investigation did not shake but rather confirmed confidence in these examinations.

The second enquiry of the Foundation into the work of the Board took the form of requesting a dozen teachers of English at Oxford, including both men and women deans, fellows, tutors, lecturers, and examiners, to read and comment critically upon sixteen of the Board's recent examination papers in English. A careful study of the extensive comments of the English teachers⁹ resulted in the conclusion that these comments "quite obviously represent the varying views of individuals and small coteries, such as the College Entrance Examination Board was established a quarter of a century ago to replace by the cumulative experience and judgment of widely representative groups."

Within a decade psychologists have developed new types of mental tests that are of undoubted value for purposes of college entrance. Although their usefulness has been retarded by extravagant claims that they test "intelligence" and may be made the basis of "intelligence quotients," they demonstrably provide new and valuable methods of estimating suitability for college study. A demonstration of their usefulness for this purpose was made by the Carnegie

⁹ Twentieth Annual Report of the Carnegie Foundation, 1925, pp. 118-131.

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Foundation in its study of Engineering Education, published shortly before the entrance of the United States into the World War.¹⁰ Following the great development of such tests in the army,¹¹ the College Entrance Examination Board developed a series of "Scholastic Aptitude Tests" which may be taken under the same conditions as its other examinations,¹² and the American Council on Education¹³ has provided psychological tests for freshmen in about two hundred colleges. Sufficient data have now accumulated to make possible the comparison and evaluation of the various methods of appraising the suitability of students for college entrance.¹⁴

All examinations and tests have the limitations of their excellent qualities of definiteness and precision. Lack of correspondence between the aim of an examination and the most characteristic qualities of a student not infrequently causes the procedure of testing to result in mere distress rather than helpful diagnosis. The excellent informality and flexibility of certification, on the other hand, too often become so careless and perfunctory that the result is practically worthless or positively misleading. Various regional and state associations of colleges and schools, state departments of education, and individual colleges have, therefore, from time to time adopted and recommended forms of certificates that their experience has shown to be desirable, have carried on statistical studies of the results of their use, and, by means of reports and, not infrequently, visits of inspec-

¹⁰ Bulletin No. 11, 1918.

¹¹ National Academy of Sciences. Memoir XV. Psychological Examining in the United States Army, 1921.

¹² The Work of the College Entrance Examination Board, 1901-25. Published by the Board, 1926.

¹³ Educational Record, VIII, 3, July, 1927, page 233.

¹⁴ Stephen S. Colvin, Intelligence of Seniors in the High Schools of Massachusetts, Bulletin of the United States Bureau of Education, No. 10, 1924. Lewis M. Terman, Mental and Physical Traits of a Thousand Gifted Children, 1925. Edward L. Thorndike, The Measurement of Intelligence, 1926, 616 pp.

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tion, have developed lists of schools that appear to deserve certificate privileges because of the work that their students have done in college. Although these devices give greater advantages to inferior students from superior schools than to more gifted students from lesser schools, they have been, in the main, of much service to both schools and colleges. The most conspicuous example is perhaps that of the New England College Entrance Certificate Board which, since its establishment in 1902, has compared the accomplishment of students in school with what they did later in college. This has resulted not only in the development of an increasingly trustworthy list of schools that are deemed worthy of the privilege of sending their students to college on certificate, but frequently in the illumination of the colleges as to the success of their own operations. When graduates of a particular school do poorly in several colleges a re-enquiry concerning the school is indicated. Colleges, on the other hand, have found it helpful to enquire into their own procedure, when graduates of several schools are reported as doing poorly in one or more departments, while graduates of the same group of schools do excellently in the same departments in other colleges. The institutions that belong to the New England College Entrance Certificate Board agree to accept certificates from all of the schools on its approved list and from those schools only, thereby assuring both the excellence of the list and emulation among schools to secure a place upon it. A recent study of certificate procedure in the Middle Atlantic States⁷ indicates that one college in that region depends wholly upon the list of schools approved by the regional association, fourteen depend wholly upon their own lists, sixteen wholly upon state lists; one combines the association list with its own, eight combine their own with state lists, sixteen combine state and association lists; only eight report using all of the information available, in a combination of association, institutional and state lists.

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Studies have been made of the college entrance certificates used by 110 universities and colleges in 1915¹⁵ and by 143 universities and colleges in 1922.¹⁶ A comparison of these masses of data indicates a growing tendency toward uniformity. Whereas, at the earlier date, there were many blanks of highly individual character, varying in size from that of a postcard to sheets a foot long and a yard wide, at the later date from two-thirds to three-fourths of the blanks were of the customary business-letter size, printed for flat filing. There was an increase in emphasis on the obviously essential elements of information and a striking increase in the number of institutions that desired specific information concerning laboratory work and concerning the year of the curriculum in which certain courses had been taken.

The most striking difference between the certificate of 1915 and that of 1922 is a tendency to ask for personal data. Scarcely any institutions in 1915, but three-fourths of the whole number in 1922, requested information concerning such matters as the date and place of the student's birth; his special interests with regard to study, athletics, and self-support; his intentions with regard to college and vocation; his school offices, honors, and other activities; his parents' nationality, educational training, and business or profession. From persons other than the student questions were asked concerning his character, ability, integrity, health, promise, industry, seriousness, good-fellowship, and the like.

The comparative study that has been mentioned¹⁶ noted the importance of such information but also that the manner in which it was requested and, apparently, the use to which it was put by colleges, appeared to be as yet almost wholly informal and unorganized. The suggestion was

¹⁵ Proceedings of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars, 1916, pages 58 ff.; Eleventh Annual Report of the Carnegie Foundation, 1916, pp. 131-8.

¹⁶ American Council on Education, Educational Record, V, 4, October, 1924, pp. 242-6.

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made that it would be a signal service to education should a committee of psychologists, statisticians, administrators, and teachers already expert in such matters, study the present and possible use of such personal data, and recommend generally available methods of selecting, securing, and recording traits of behavior which may be clearly distinguished and compared, possibly measured, and certainly employed by college officers and teachers as suggestions for the student's further development. Happily such a committee has now been organized, provided with suitable resources, and is at work under the auspices of the American Council on Education.¹⁷

Finally, it is a pleasure to recognize that the most progressive institutions in administering their entrance requirements do not depend exclusively upon any one form of machinery, whether this be in the form of certificates, written or psychological examinations, personal recommendations, ratings, or interviews, but use a combination of most or all of these devices, and perhaps of others in addition. In a few universities the endeavor to understand the nature and needs of prospective students has become so complete and disinterested that it not infrequently results in the guidance of students, for their greater good, toward other institutions or toward some quite different, unacademic, career. Should this tendency develop, it may far transcend in social usefulness all procedures that are directed toward college entrance alone. Even at present there is probably no other procedure in the student's entire academic life so significant as that of his admission to college; certainly there is no other single activity of a university or college that is so suggestive an indication of an institution's measure of enlightenment.

¹⁷ Educational Record, VIII, 3, July, 1927, p. 235.

VI

REMAKING THE COLLEGE CURRICULUM

ROBERT L. KELLY

The curriculum is a means to an end. The question "Why?" therefore, must precede the question, "What?"

Any one with a little discrimination could bring together a dozen more or less perfectly good statements of purpose of the American college. In the process he would no doubt reject more statements than he accepted. Considering that there are several hundred colleges carrying some stamp of academic respectability, the dozen or twenty statements of purpose are not too many. Each college has its own individuality and it ought to state its own task in its own way.

Evidently the college has or ought to have some relation to the proper use of the mind. That appears to be a constant in the midst of the bewildering though permissible variants. It is equally evident that the college has an obligation to temper intellectual attainment with an ethical motive. Morals as well as minds help to make the man. This appears to be a second constant. Committee G, of the American Association of University Professors, has defined the purpose of undergraduate education as

The maintenance and development of civilization through the training of men and women for intellectual and moral leadership.

This statement recognizes the two constants just mentioned and introduces as a third the idea of leadership. Many would hold that the satisfaction of intellectual curiosity is a sufficient aim within itself even though not motivated by the added purpose of leadership. Many college men and women do become leaders, it is true. It will be insisted also by not a few students of the college that an inseparable relationship exists between the intellectual and

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the physical, esthetic and spiritual factors in the individual's life.

However the modern college may state its purpose, two facts must be recognized. One is the central position of the student in the academic process. The other is the need of more serviceable techniques for so great a stake. Such techniques are now being formulated and tested in many colleges. The mechanics of the various experiments is being set forth in an increasing literature.

If, then, the question be asked, What is the college doing in building a curriculum? the reply may be made—*The twentieth century college is attempting to help the student in three ways: (a) in discovering his own capacities and interests, actual and potential; (b) in revealing to him the implications of those capacities and interests; and (c) in contributing to their realization.*

The curriculum in part or in whole is being constructed for, with and by *the student*. The purpose of the college is to help the student and the curriculum becomes an individual affair. As a successful administrator has put it, the curriculum is being fitted to the man. The present transfer of attention from a program of studies worked out by the faculty according to accepted rules of logic in terms of the faculty's preconceived notions of the most valuable subjects to be taught (invariably those they can teach best), to the interesting discovery that, after all, the college is organized to teach students rather than subjects and that the learning process on the part of the boy is more vital than the teaching process on the part of the faculty, is a most remarkable evolution from the ancient to the modern time. The present day curriculum is student centered and student and faculty controlled.

But the present day curriculum is not student centered in terms of the "new education" of the '80's. That "new education" belonged to an age which has now become medieval. In his annual report in 1884 President Eliot

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wrote, "There are now no required studies in the college (Harvard) except rhetoric for one year, English composition and a few lectures in chemistry and physics." If a college executive should make such a statement to-day he would not mean what President Eliot meant. President Eliot was speaking in terms of free electives and, as Dr. Furst points out in Chapter V, these do not figure largely in present day procedure. The electives of to-day are nearly all conditional electives. The college usually names the groups in which the student may distribute his work. The student and his principal advisers select the particular courses to fit the case in hand. They may choose the group or even the subjects in which the student concentrates, but this decision once having been made, the courses cannot be selected on a free elective basis.

The new theory tends to continuity and unity of studies with the corresponding squeezing of water out of the catalogue stock and the scrapping, largely by its own weight, of much of the marvelous and expensive departmental machinery. The new theory tends to select the student by hand and to educate him by hand, encouraging him to participate in the process by using his own brain and heart.

But not all the old machinery has been scrapped. During the earlier days many a "settee" from which some dear old professor had dispensed prodigious amounts of Latin, astronomy, Bible, geology and mathematics, had been tenderly taken to the attic and in its place had been set numerous "chairs" in accordance with the demands of the more progressive departmental system. In the new dispensation these ancient settees—relics of a bygone and almost forgotten day—are being brought down, carefully dusted, and restored to their places of honor in the classroom. The principal difference is that whereas one teacher formerly occupied the settee and taught many subjects, now several teachers occupy the settee and teach one subject. This is what the University of Wisconsin is proposing to do

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in the Experimental College, where "departments" are to be abandoned and even "subjects" are to be discarded, while teachers and students study one "situation," as, for instance, Greek civilization. This is essentially what is being done in Swarthmore and other colleges where "honors" courses are the symbols of the new technique. In these institutions a group of faculty members and students collaborate informally in a common task. Even the students would occupy the settee, except that all concerned are more likely to sit around a table.

In order to lead students to help themselves most effectively the interests and capacities of students must first be known. In the effort to discover what manner of being the college student is numerous devices are being tried. The old examination system attempted chiefly to discover how much or what a student could remember. The new devices attempt to get nearer to the heart of things. They have to do, first, with the process of matriculation. What are the incoming student's heritage, environment, habits, dispositions, interests, capacities? These matters are set forth in the preceding chapter.

But the effort to discover the student's claim to a permanent place in the college community is not confined to the processes of admission. Some of the entering hurdles are purposely made low with the hope and expectation that many students will find themselves during the first two years of college life, frankly recognized as a time of experimentation. During these years the student may sample for himself some of the fields of knowledge and try his hand at some of the tools of learning.¹

It may be claimed for the various orientation and survey courses that, in addition to the types of testing already

¹ For an exposition of these methods see *The Changing College*, by E. H. Wilkins, The University of Chicago Press; also "Curriculum Reconstruction in the College," by Frederick J. Kelly, *The Twenty-sixth Yearbook (1926) of the National Society for the Study of Education*, Part I, 381-405.

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referred to, they serve at least three other purposes: they give the student an introductory and general view of a field of knowledge; they allow him to put to a severer test than he has had before the interests, if any, with which he came to college; they consciously or unconsciously suggest to him methods of synthesizing his knowledge during the process of achieving it. The experience of Columbia College with the course in Contemporary Civilization goes to show that the process of such orientation has resulted in larger enrolment in the fields sampled than had been the case by the old hit-or-miss method, which may mean the discovery or accentuation of real interests as well as capacities.

The faith of some colleges in the orientation and survey courses as an encouragement to synthetic thinking has led them to introduce the method into other years of the college course than the freshman year. Oberlin has long had in operation such an elective course for seniors taken by approximately 40 per cent. of the class. The University of Chicago, in addition to the primary courses referred to above, has an elective course called Reflective Thinking and one on the Meaning and the Value of the Arts. Columbia has an additional course known as An Introduction to Reflective Thinking. At Whittier College during the freshman year there is synthesis in terms of human institutions in general and the home in particular; during the sophomore year in terms of psychology; during the junior year in terms of sociology; and during the senior year in terms of philosophy and religion. At Reed College and at St. Stephen's the cumulative effect of the synthetic method carried consistently through the four years of the college course is supposed to bring the student to the end of the senior year with at least a tentative philosophy of life. More and more, colleges are striving to lead each student to achieve a personal educational synthesis. In most of the colleges the first two years of the new curriculum are exploratory from the student's standpoint, while during the last two years he concentrates on his one or more permanent interests.

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There persists, however, in the new curriculum, a more or less well defined "body of knowledge," which is being developed, preserved, and handed on from generation to generation. Investigations made by the Association of American Colleges, the Carnegie Foundation, President Ferry of Hamilton College, and the United States Bureau of Education, covering the work of 106,000 students, and several million college hours in 214 institutions, compiled by Dr. Furst and referred to in the preceding chapter, demonstrate that college students as well as entering students are more conservative in the selection of subjects of study than faculties in the official prescriptions and recommendations. The student conservatism has no doubt been aided and abetted by the numerous faculty advisers. Nevertheless, the student certainly does more work in the traditional subjects than he is officially required or advised to do. His course exhibits an unexpected degree of continuity. Twice as much work in English and foreign languages and literatures is taken by college students as is prescribed; three times as much science and philosophy; five times as much history, and almost a third more mathematics. To put it another way—during the eight years of the high school and college course, the average student has had six years of English language and literature, four years of mathematics, eight years of foreign languages, five years of history, four and one-half years of science, one year of philosophy, and two and one-half of other subjects. This means that half the students have had more years than here indicated in these fundamental subjects.

These composite results are all the more significant as illustrating the texture of the American college mind, since they cover investigations in many liberal colleges of many types in all parts of the country. Every study which has been made tells the same story. The colleges, operating under their own steam, are running fairly true to general academic traditions at the same time that they are inter-

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preting the present and envisaging the future. The modern curriculum is characterized by fluidity but it is keeping within its banks. It has overcome the peril of previous rigidity which attained an artificial uniformity, and is now overcoming the pulverization which was produced by the free elective system.

This means, as has been said elsewhere, that the college is making provision that the student may know his own language, that he may know something of one or more foreign languages, and that he may prepare more fully for "intellectual and moral leadership" by knowing the eternal thoughts and aspirations and achievements of men as they have been preserved in the literature of these languages, and that he may have some grasp of the movements of the civilization of his own time. It also means that he may have some familiarity with certain methods—the scientific method, the historical method, the method of criticism. Above everything else it is believed he should know and be able to use the method of creation which consists of recognizing differences and then of resolving these differences into a larger whole and making them over into vital human forces. Now, if we can give him the mastery of these tools and of these methods, we certainly will help him to be a creator and will have somewhat justified our curriculum.

Plans and Principles for Curriculum Construction

Continuity. Among the plans and principles in terms of which the curriculum is now being constructed is the principle of continuity. A few subjects are being studied for several years. The college does not claim to give encyclopaedic knowledge to a single student. It is discouraging smatterers.

Unity through synthesis. The continuity, in turn, is a necessary condition for unity. The cumulative effect of these years of study of a few subjects, with the constant reviews of matter already covered and the enforcement of

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prerequisites, encourages and assists the student to synthesize his knowledge as he achieves it. It is a legitimate outgrowth of the operation of a curriculum built on the intellectual, ethical, esthetic interests of the student and adapted to his capacities.

Divisions. The curriculum materials with the respective faculties in charge are organized into divisions or groups, each division being made up of cognate subjects. An excellent illustration may be found in the case of Carleton College, which has six divisions: I. Division of Language and Literature; II. Division of Philosophy, Religion and Education; III. Division of Political and Social Science; IV. Division of Science; V. Division of Fine Arts; VI. Division of Hygiene, Physical Education and Athletics. The division serves to correct the artificialities of the departments, now happily becoming less dominating in curriculum building.

The Junior-Senior College. The divisions constitute a longitudinal classification of curriculum material. There is also a horizontal separation of the work of the first two years and the last two years. This is not a mechanical or arbitrary separation any more than are the divisions. The divisions are functional separations in terms of the nature of the subject-matter. The junior-senior college separation, also functional but becoming increasingly administrative as well, is based upon clearly recognized psychological, economic and sociological considerations. The stages of adolescent development have been quite faithfully charted by the psychologists and sociologists. The work of the first two years is largely rote work. It is really a continuation of secondary-school subjects. The courses are introductory and elementary. They afford opportunities for the student to locate himself in the midst of the "big, buzzing, blooming confusion" of civilizations, past and present. They are extensive surveys of well-charted fields of knowledge. The student is learning; he is being taught; he has not yet struck out for himself. Under the best conditions, he is

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learning how to think. Such thinking as he may do as an undergraduate is likely to be done chiefly during the last two years. This distinction has long been recognized by the leading Continental countries. Its belated recognition in America is stimulating the processes of academic evolution.

Distribution. The divisions afford opportunity for distribution and experimentation. They are fields of exploration for the freshmen and sophomores; but they have more permanent values as well. The statement of President Henry Churchill King made ten years ago with reference to the program of the Christian college has not been improved upon.

The student should get some genetic understanding of the civilization in which he lives and some sharing in the great intellectual and spiritual achievements of the race. More specifically, the college must make possible for its students some personal sharing in the scientific spirit and method, in the historical spirit, in the philosophic mind, in esthetic appreciation, in the social consciousness and in religious discernment and commitment.

Concentration. The divisions also suggest opportunities for more concentrated study during the junior and senior years. Ideally, having laid a broad foundation by acquiring some appreciation of the meaning and method of all the leading fields of human thought and achievement, the student completes his educational program by mastering a phase of some one of them. At this point the honors courses, the independent study plans, and the various other devices for junior and senior specialization are being introduced in a multitude of colleges.

The chief devices now being used among the upper classmen to vitalize the curriculum, in addition to those carried over from the first two years, which have been elaborated by President Wilkins and Dean Kelly in the reference on page 55, are the concentration on a major subject, toward which

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all the student's previous work has led; the utilization of the tutorial or preceptorial system or some "moral equivalent" in the form of frequent student-faculty conferences; the seminars and colloquiums; the renewed emphasis on the term papers and final theses; the honors courses for exceptional students (see Chapter XIV) as found in more than one hundred colleges, and the comprehensive examination as used notably at Whitman,² Harvard (see Chapter XV), Princeton, Reed, Bowdoin and Mt. Holyoke for the many, and at Swarthmore, Smith, etc., for the few.

The varying extent to which these principles are now in operation may be suggested by the recital of a few specific cases. Phases of the systems at Swarthmore and Harvard are set forth in other chapters and need not be repeated here. A wide range of method is illustrated in the cases described, selected, however, not so much because they are unique as because they are representative. The groups represented are those colleges in which there are definite curriculum prescriptions (Dartmouth); those in which the curricula are largely prevocational (Minnesota); those in which the curricula have very little prescribed work (Earlham); and those in which the English influence is marked (Reed).

At *Dartmouth*, the new curriculum which is to be applied for the first time to the class graduating in 1929 is determined to a considerable extent in advance by the faculty and consists of twenty-six hours of somewhat rigid requirements and twenty-four hours of requirements subject to group selection. In addition, a major consisting of twenty-four hours of junior and senior work is required of each student. The balance of forty-eight hours consists of essentially free electives. Beginning with 1929 Dartmouth will confer but one baccalaureate degree, the A.B.

At the *University of Minnesota* the undergraduate work is *largely prevocational*. In the College of Science, Litera-

² Association of American Colleges *Bulletin*, Vol. XIII, No. 4, November, 1927, pp. 326-7.

³ Annual Catalogue, 1926-27.

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ture and Arts of the University, the general course leading to the Bachelor of Arts degree offers "elective work under certain limitations intended to secure a proper balance between breadth of foundation and liberal culture on the one hand, and specialized training on the other."⁴ Special courses in this College are announced as follows: Training for State and Federal Administration; Training for Diplomatic and Consular Service; Training for Hospital Library Service; Training for Medical Technicians; Preventive Medicine and Public Health; Training for Social and Civic Work; Military Science and Tactics; Arts and Music; Combined course in Arts and Medicine (seven years); Combined course in Arts and Dentistry (seven years); Combined course in Arts and Nursing (five years); Combined course in Arts and Architecture (six years); Combined course in Arts and Interior Decoration (four years); Preprofessional training.

Within this college 43 per cent. of the students are in the freshman class and 41 per cent. in the sophomore class. Forty per cent. of the students in the junior and senior classes come to the University with advanced standing from other liberal colleges.

Earlham College. Some twelve or fifteen years ago the faculty of Earlham College formulated a program which was intended to utilize all the principles enumerated on pages 58-61, and this program continues in operation with no essential changes. The curriculum material is brought together into four groups—philosophy-history, English literature, languages, science-mathematics. First-year students are required to pursue a one-hour course in physiology and hygiene and a two-hour course in English composition. *These are the only unconditional requirements for graduation.* All the rest of the work is on the elective basis but the electives for the most part are not free

⁴ Bulletin of the University of Minnesota, Vol. XXX, No. 16, 1927-28.

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electives. Inter-course and inter-departmental affiliations are established. It is a case of liberty under law. Each student takes a major and three minors. Concentration and a degree of unity are secured through the major; distribution and a certain degree of continuity by the requirement that either a major or a minor must be chosen from each group. Continuity is guaranteed further in that the college course, as is the common practice, is built up on the basis of the subjects in the preparatory course. Low-grade work, though of a passing mark, does not count toward graduation. Initiative and scholarly achievement are encouraged by means of theses in major subjects which may be substituted for regular courses. The curriculum of each student is an individual affair to the extent that each student plans it in consultation with the faculty adviser and justifies the successive steps in advance. Each student's curriculum is built in terms of guiding principles and ascertained preferences and not in terms of subject-courses.

Reed College. During the first two years, with occasional exceptions, *the students pursue much the same course.* This policy is based upon the conception that there are certain subjects that every student ought to study and also on the belief that, ordinarily, the student may safely be encouraged to delay his decision as to his major interest until the end of his second year. Selected significant periods⁵ in the development of civilization are studied from various points of view by freshmen, and this correlation course is continued during the second year. Alongside of this there is a course in at least one of the natural sciences, a course in mathematics, and then there is an independent course giving opportunity for special preferences or aptitudes.

During the last two years the distinctive features are *concentration of attention upon a major subject and greater emphasis on individual initiative and responsibility.* The

⁵ Now adopted by the Experimental College, University of Wisconsin.

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curriculum material is grouped for the purpose into the divisions of literature and language, history and social sciences, mathematics and natural science, and philosophy, psychology and education. The divisional faculties cooperate to insure that major work shall not be a departmental matter. The department as such is practically eliminated. There is a general examination at the end of the junior year and also of the senior year. Much stress is placed upon the baccalaureate thesis. Indeed, it is the crown of the plan of concentration. To prevent the domination of the major subject, however, which is directed toward individual specialization, the seniors also participate in a "colloquium," which is intended to serve as a final means of correlating the various aspects of the college course. The goal of the program of the college is that each student shall attain a philosophy of life.

These are the typical administrative means—the typical external devices. But it remains true now, as it always has, that the most vital and therefore effective means of inspiring students to four years of intellectual adventure is to bring them within the sphere of influence of the warmth and light of devoted intellectual and spiritual personalities, some one or more of whom are found in almost every college faculty.

The biggest achievement in curriculum building is to set adventurous students among the masters.

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THIRD PART

FACULTY-STUDENT RELATIONSHIPS

Chapter

- VII. Faculty-Student Cooperation
Ernest H. Wilkins
- VIII. The Relations between Faculty and Students
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Bibliography

VII

FACULTY-STUDENT COOPERATION

ERNEST H. WILKINS

The persons who know most at any one time about the actual conditions of college life and work are the students themselves—particularly, of course, the upper-classmen. They not only know conditions, but they feel about them and think about them. The traditional lines of least resistance for both thought and feeling are in the direction of negative discontent rather than of reflective suggestion. Yet the average intelligence of the typical college body is in reality high, and the intelligence of its ablest members is very high indeed; the typical college body is inherently idealistic, and its ablest members in particular are quickly responsive to a reasoned appeal for constructive service. It would seem to be the part of wisdom, therefore, that any administration seeking to improve the conditions of college life and work should utilize to the full the great potential energy of student thought and idealism.

This does not mean that students should be set to work alone in vital matters—for they have not the maturity of judgment, nor the fund of educational knowledge and experience, nor the training in investigative and legislative procedure which would render probable the attainment of adequate and tenable results. Nor should the administration and faculty work alone—since to do so would be to disregard first-hand knowledge and readily available working power.

The improvement of the conditions of college life and work should therefore be, to a far larger extent than is at present the case, a matter of faculty-student cooperation.

I shall endeavor in what follows to give first a brief account of recent experience in faculty-student cooperation at

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the University of Chicago, and then to add thereto some further suggestions as to the principles and values of such cooperation.

I

In the autumn of 1923 there arose a problem regarding an organization of undergraduate men in the University of Chicago which, while of no great significance in itself, was critical as being likely to determine the attitude of the student body toward a then new administration. It was in this instance perfectly clear that student opinion should be fully heard and duly weighed. There was therefore appointed a committee consisting, in addition to the chairman, of four members of the faculty and four leading men of the senior class. At the first meeting of this committee the faculty members sat on one side of a long table and the students sat on the other side. The students were at first reticent and the faculty members a little uncertain as to means and values of discussion. But in the course of the evening it became evident to the faculty members that the students had the basic knowledge and the will to work and were as good companions in thought as could be desired; and it became evident to the students that the faculty members were not trying to "put anything over," but sincerely wanted facts and suggestions and were not averse to having their own ideas criticized or refuted. In the later sessions of the committee there was no separation of faculty from students in seating or in mental attitude. The committee produced what was generally regarded as a sound and wise report; but the main value of its work was the proof that faculty and students could work together gladly and effectively in a matter of mutual concern.

The success of this committee and the increasing disposition of students, in part resulting therefrom, to bring to administrative attention matters which in student opinion needed consideration led in the winter of 1923-24 to the

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organization of a cooperative movement known as the "Better Yet Campaign."

This movement was itself in charge of an executive committee on which faculty and students were equally represented. All members of the senior class were invited to participate in the campaign by sending in written suggestions as to conditions in the field of student life and work which might well be studied with a view to improvement. The many suggestions received were canvassed by the executive committee, and twenty-two were selected for study. The topics thus chosen were—in addition to some of purely local and temporary interest—the following: the establishment of a department or school of music; the providing of more courses in public speaking; the development of interest in current affairs; the distribution of students' time; the improvement of the quality of instruction in elementary courses; the introduction of an activity point system; the direction of student activities; the establishment of a freshman men's club; student representation on the Board of Student Organizations; the composition and activities of the Honor Commission; the development of class spirit; faculty fraternity counselors, a club or clubs for non-fraternity men; a club or clubs for non-club women, undergraduate religious life; the supervision of social functions; the student auditor plan; intramural athletics.

For each of these topics the executive committee appointed a special faculty-student committee, the question of personnel being studied with great care. The typical committee consisted of a faculty chairman, three other faculty members, and three students, chiefly but not exclusively seniors. Duplication in the membership of these committees was avoided; consequently a high percentage of the leading upper-classmen were enlisted in the movement.

Some of these committees finished their work before the end of the winter. Others continued in service for more than a year. In nearly every case definite results were

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reached and recommendations embodied in the committee report have been carried into effect. The report of the Committee on the Distribution of Students' Time, a very notable piece of educational research, has been printed and has been found valuable not only at Chicago but elsewhere. A portion of the report of the Committee on the Quality of Instruction in Elementary Courses has been printed as a leaflet under the title, "Qualities Desirable in Instructors in Elementary Courses Conducted by the Lecture-Discussion Method."

But the most significant results of the movement as a whole were the experience of cooperation itself, the educational training afforded to students through the prosecution of informal study in companionship with faculty members, and the renewed proof that faculty and students could thus work together with mutual pleasure and to real advantage.

In two cases reports of Better Yet Committees led to the establishment of a permanent faculty-student body. The official University Board of Student Organizations, Publications, and Exhibitions, which has general control of fraternities, clubs, student activities, and social affairs, had consisted hitherto of about a dozen faculty members without student representation. The Better Yet Committee in question recommended that from two to four students be added to the Board as regular members. This recommendation was accepted by the Board itself, by the University Senate, and by the Board of Trustees (as it involved a change in the statutes of the University), and since the spring of 1924 the Board of Student Organizations has had the very great advantage of having students in its membership—thus ensuring full presentation of student opinion and ensuring student knowledge that the matters concerned have been fully and freely and considerably discussed. These students are regular members of the Board in every respect, and with faculty members do a large part of the committee work of the Board.

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The Honor Commission at Chicago is the body which tries cases of students accused of dishonesty in written work or in examinations and awards penalties in cases of guilt. For some time prior to the Better Yet Campaign the Honor Commission had been composed exclusively of students. The results were very unsatisfactory. Elections to the commission were to a large extent political; there was not and could not well be a real consistency or continuity in policy; and the commission failed to retain the confidence of either the faculty or the student body. The Honor Commission as reconstituted on recommendation of the Better Yet Committee is now a joint faculty-student body with a faculty chairman. It has already demonstrated its great superiority over the earlier form.

Other faculty-student committees have come into existence as a consequence of the development—again the work of a Better Yet Committee—of the faculty fraternity counselor plan. Each fraternity has a faculty counselor; these counselors are organized as a body with committees on various subjects; and each such committee asks the Undergraduate Interfraternity Council to appoint a committee of students to work with it. One such joint committee, for instance, has been very helpful with a plan related to the raising of fraternity scholarship; and another in the drafting of a standard set of fraternity house rules.

The principle of cooperation thus amply established as valid has found and is finding other less formal expressions. Prior to 1924 the Dean of the Colleges handled singly or with special faculty advice such disciplinary cases as did not fall within the field of the Honor Commission. In the autumn of 1924 the Dean asked the Undergraduate Council to appoint a committee of four undergraduates to sit as advisers to the Dean in such disciplinary cases. The Dean retains the right of decision; but the questioning and the expressions of opinion of the students have been exceedingly valuable. This plan has made for justice and for the

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general knowledge that justice is sincerely sought and measurably obtained.

It has become the practice of the Dean, when some move affecting the conditions of student life and work has been contemplated, to call in a group of upper-classmen for informal discussion of the plan while it is still tentative and fluid. So, for instance, the policy by which a fraternity is placed on probation (*i.e.* is forbidden to initiate or to hold social functions) for a term in case its average scholarship for the preceding term falls below the standard required for graduation, was determined upon at an informal faculty-student conference. Different groups of students are called in for consideration of different projects.

Similarly, discovery of student feeling that a given practice is unjust is followed by the appointment of a faculty-student committee to consider the matter. This has led to the removal of misunderstandings and to the correction of actual abuses.

II

The experience thus outlined has, in my opinion, established the validity of the theory of faculty-student cooperation as stated at the beginning of this paper, and has illustrated some of the principles necessary for its success and some of the values resulting from such cooperation.

In theory, indeed, such cooperation is indispensable as a phase of educational research. For in any type of research involving conscious beings as objects it is of course of the first importance to obtain full and complete reactions from the objects of the research. By the same token, if we are to understand what college education is actually doing, we must obtain reliable statements of the experience of those who are in the process. Faculty-student cooperation makes this possible both by bringing faculty and students together and by disposing the students toward confidence in the faculty.

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One of the formal principles conducive to the success of such cooperation is that when faculty and students thus meet they should be represented in equal numbers. If this is the case no one feels isolated nor burdened with an excess of representative responsibility—all are more at ease.¹

It is of course important that the personnel of faculty-student groups should be carefully selected. On the faculty side it is particularly important that the men or women chosen be open-minded and ready to see both sides of a question, yet strong with intelligent interest in college education as a whole and able to speak with quiet reasonableness on behalf of their convictions. Students are no more ready than anyone else to accept dogmatic statements unsupported by reasons; students are more ready, in my experience, than the average non-student group to appreciate and be moved by thoughtful argumentation.

The students chosen should in general be upper-classmen,² and should of course be men or women respected among their fellows. It is indeed possible that such selection may itself be regarded as an honor. If this situation

¹ I venture to add that I believe this principle of equality of numbers to be helpful also in the matter of the entertainment of students by faculty members. A dinner party, for instance, consisting of one faculty couple and several students or of several faculty couples and one or two students is apt to be badly unbalanced. The most pleasant and successful instances of faculty entertainment of students which I have known have been occasions on which there were just as many students as faculty people present.

² I heartily subscribe to the recent statement of Dean Hawkes in his address, "The Liberal Arts College in the University," in the *Amherst Graduates' Quarterly* for February, 1926: "In our American colleges the tendency has been very strong during the last ten years to emphasize a line of cleavage between the first two college years and the last two. . . . In my experience there is no question that during the first year or two of college life the students are not able to carry completely their responsibilities. They are boys, not men. I am just as clear that juniors and seniors are much better able to carry their responsibilities because for the most part they are men rather than boys."

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comes about, selection may well fall at times on students not otherwise "prominent" who because of personal quality deserve encouragement.

Different students should be selected for different committees, formal or informal. No occasion should ever be given for thinking of a certain group of students as "yes"-men; and no administrative relation with students should ever be such as to give the slightest basis for suspicion of espionage.

The chief values of faculty-student cooperation have already been suggested. In summary and with some additions, they are as follows.

The faculty members stand to gain an understanding, otherwise inaccessible, of the conditions of student life and work; and to benefit in the development of constructive measures of any sort by the sense of general confidence which such cooperation tends to develop. Such an attitude is indeed indispensable if improvements of any sort involving student conduct or tradition are really to "take." If you want to do anything *for* students, do it *with* them—otherwise they think you are doing it *to* them. Administrative officers in particular may have the satisfaction of knowing in the case of decision after cooperation that students, even though they dislike and disagree with a decision, know that it has been reached loyally and is just and desirable in the honest opinion of those who made it.

The students gain whatever values may come from friendly association with older men in investigative and constructive study; a broader and better proportioned knowledge of education as a whole and perhaps of the general social problem; the sense of freedom to suggest and to protest which should make a very great difference between the thwarting and the stimulation of creative thought and idealism; and the same sense of general confidence, already alluded to, which should lead to greater satisfaction in many phases of the undergraduate's experience of his college.

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I have not attempted to define the range in which such cooperation is applicable. In the work done at Chicago it has dealt in general with matters of social life in the broadest sense, of student activities, or conduct of specific procedures. It has nevertheless touched the essential question of the quality of instruction, and such curriculum problems as those represented by the committees on music and on public speaking. I am inclined to believe that the method could well be expanded to the consideration of any problems that are not technically educational or administrative; for I do not fear the admission of students into any committee discussion in which there is justice and clear thinking on the faculty side; and the freshness, even the naïveté, of student opinion is likely to be in general a healthy thing for faculty minds. Even in technical matters I should favor meeting any expressed student interest with full and courteous explanation.

The experience of faculty-student cooperation carries in itself its own immediate reward in the friendly association of older and younger members of the same community; and it has, I believe, possibilities for educational development which we have hardly begun to realize.

VIII

THE RELATIONS BETWEEN FACULTY AND STUDENTS¹

CLARENCE C. LITTLE

My topic is open to two very different interpretations. Taken literally, I suppose it might mean a detailed study of the mothers and fathers, since they are the relations which usually stand between the faculty and the students. In fact, when Dean Effinger said that the Lord had delivered the present generation into our hands, I think he was right, and I wish the parents had done the same thing. Those of you who are parents know that the students are only loaned to us at best by the parents and that the parents haven't done quite such a good job as the Lord has in granting us a clear title.

I have also been interested in the figure of Mark Hopkins, which continually recurs in educational addresses, and being a biologist I think that it may provide the first proof for the inheritance of acquired characters. This seems to be true because having sat upon a log for a long time the students appear to have caught the wood by contagion in the head and the faculty in the backbone. The net result is apparent to all of us, I think, and I think there is very interesting transmission of that peculiar localization of the wood through a great many college generations.

I don't suppose anybody will ever completely define an effective college. I suspect the definition would be like that of a perfect wife. If that particular definition was called for publicly here at the present time, we should without any question have a diplomatic response; if we called for it in private we might get an entirely different vote. Quite possibly that same thing applies to the case of the

¹ Stenographic report.

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effective college. However, it is something to think about and to discuss.

I suppose there is no better measure of the success of a college than the relationship between its faculty and the students. If we were asked to focus upon one single phase of the work which we are doing which would show up the success or failure of our achievement, it would be found in that relationship. It is a relationship which varies so much that we shall only be safe if we retreat at the outset to that always sure fortress of general principles and general statements. If we try to be too specific we shall find very quickly that we have eliminated one whole group, or several groups, of institutions from the consideration of the problem.

When relationships between faculty and students vary tremendously, as they do, in all institutions, it is a reflection of a very definite complexity of environment. When life of any kind finds itself in a simple environment, one does not find great variation in its forms of activity; there is no need for it. It is only when an environment becomes very complex that living things attempt to meet the complexity by varying up to the limit of their adaptability. That is what our colleges seem to me to be doing to-day. Surrounded by a changing civilization, they have been forced to throw out all sorts of structures which attempt to adapt themselves to these rapidly changing conditions surrounding us. That means that in order to come to any proper sense of the relation between faculty and students we must at all times and in every way possible develop tests as to the differences which exist. That will mean tests as to the variations which exist in our faculty members and tests as to the differences which exist in our student bodies. These differences are, some of them, inherent in the material itself while others are the by-products of the environment.

President Macmillan has shown how by simplifying the environment, by isolating small groups, it is easier to solve

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your problem. That is a perfectly sound biological principle. When nature wants to test an organism she isolates it and watches what happens. When we want to find out the nature of our student body socially we must isolate it in smaller groups than we are now using, and when we want to find out its nature individually we must try to isolate the individual mind and find out about that.

That will mean long and arduous *research*, and it will mean research from the point of view of both faculty and students. It will also involve the recognition that they are both of them being studied in a spirit of friendship and in a spirit which has as its aim the reconciliation of their points of difference. An ultimate cooperation between them will be of very greatest value. The students have enjoyed an immunity from that type of analysis, due to their great numbers, and the faculties have largely enjoyed immunity due to the great height of mental achievement which they have reached. Neither of those conditions is fair. It is not right to leave our students in masses without attempting to find out the basis for the differences that exist, and to utilize those differences intelligently. Nor is it fair to faculty members to pretend that they are all "born free and equal," because they are not. The students will determine the truth of the latter statement even if we who are interested in administration do not.

In this matter, as in the evaluation of a scientific paper, it is much more fun to correct your own mistakes than to have somebody else do it for you. On this basis, then, a study of the nature of differences in faculty members, in their point of view, in their abilities and in their success in reconciling their abilities with their achievement, will be a fair, decent thing to do from the point of view of the faculty itself.

Those of you who are interested in administration will have to develop, I imagine, "triple-plate" rhinoceros hide in order to do it. It is nevertheless one of the clear obliga-

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tions that lie before us, if we are to say that we have fairly attempted to cope with the complexity of the situation with which we are faced.

Similarly, it is not going to be popular at all in the larger institutions when we begin to break the student body up into groups, to pull them out of the very pleasurable and highly indefinite environment of a city and to locate them in dormitories, smaller housing units, where we know what they are doing with their sixteen or eighteen or twenty leisure hours out of every twenty-four. It is not very logical to say that we are really educating, that is to say, "leading out" personalities, when we are interested in them only in the classroom. In that particular environment they do not exhibit themselves naturally, they are not "caught off their guard." Of course, I don't include those merry little occasions where the teacher catches them reading newspapers and that sort of thing—those will always occur, I hope, since they show a certain degree of human quality, but I do think that we have almost entirely ignored the vast leisure period of the student and then have been very surprised when he has used that period in a way which seems to us undesirable.

Habit formation has almost been forgotten in our American systems of education, and instead, really, of building up a democracy of education in our various universities, we have practically relied on a communistic form of relationship between students and faculty. There is no effort made to utilize contacts with any broad end in view. I am making rather sweeping generalities and I know that they don't apply to every institution, but in order to save time it is necessary sometimes to dogmatize, so that I hope you will excuse me if I speak in that way.

Now what kind of a criterion can we use to test both our faculty and our students? We certainly cannot apply the same mental tests to both. I don't think that either group would vote for that. Having in mind a certain very pon-

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derous colonel of heavy artillery who took one of the Army enlisted men's mental tests, broke five pencils and one of the commandments in the process, and made a very poor showing, I know that there would be some faculty members who would suffer from some of the tests that are being given at the present time. As for the administrative officers, if we have learned even one lesson we certainly should steer clear of such a pitfall.

There is, however, a somewhat general term which I think has not been very much abused and which has been very helpful in analyzing the situation. That term is "opportunity." It is an indefinite term, but it means something to all of us. It has a more obvious meaning, perhaps, after considering it than it has at first glimpse.

There are five phases of opportunity that apply equally to all of us and to our faculties and to our students, and they come in a fairly logical sequence. The first is to make sure that there is a desire born in the minds of all concerned, *to hunt for opportunity*, in other words never to be wholly satisfied with the existing order of things. We criticize too great satisfaction in the students, and where it is present we lament it in the faculty. To hunt, then, for opportunity and never to stop hunting for it is the first step, as I see it, toward a measure of success and a measure of cooperation in true education.

To know when you have found it is the second step. These two steps are preliminary and lie at the base of the other three. There is no use hunting for opportunity if you don't know when you have found it. If you confine yourself merely to hunting and don't know when you have found opportunity, you turn into an intellectual gossip—a person who flits around from one thing to another without any sense of discovery.

If we could be sure that at the end of the first two years of college we knew which students had developed an undying desire to hunt for opportunity mentally and to recog-

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nize it when they found it, we should have material for a far better group of juniors and seniors than we have to-day. Whatever honestly is being done to-day in colleges to find out whether there has been a change in the point of view of the student, a change of this type, will serve as a guiding star for that student both in his undergraduate days and up any degree of the educational system that you may want to lead him after that time.

The third step, after having hunted for and learned how to recognize opportunity, is *to evaluate it*, to have a basis of comparison, to separate accurately the wise from the unwise, the old from the new, the temporary from the permanent, the constructive from the destructive, in the various problems which come up mentally. That is a higher order of achievement and I believe will not be practiced by the *average* freshman or sophomore in our colleges to-day. It can, however, be practiced by the average junior if we aim the freshman and sophomore courses in such a way as to develop its foundation.

Therefore, we should *look for, recognize, and evaluate* opportunity—and *then use it*. There is no point in teaching a desire to use opportunity before you have taught the student how to look for it and find it and evaluate it. We have cases again and again of a boy or girl with abundant energy, hard workers, who have no power of discrimination whatever. They don't know what they are looking for or when they have found it, or how to place a value upon it. We have to face those three steps, as I see it, before the hard work which Dean Effinger has advocated, and which is an absolute necessity, is put before them. I don't say they must be developed altogether before we take that up, but these three steps will quite obviously be necessary before wise utilization of opportunity is possible.

The fifth and last step belongs to the exceptional student and to the exceptional faculty member, and that is to create

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opportunity for others. *If you look for, recognize, evaluate, use and finally create opportunity*, and if it becomes known that the common efforts of administration, faculty and students lie along that line, I believe that you have a basis on which you can build cooperation. Until we have that, until we find the students realizing that the faculty are being asked to apply to their problems the same constructive, forward-looking policy which they are being asked to apply to theirs, we shall not have much real cooperation.

It is not going to be easy to do this, and yet it seems to me that therein lie life and evolution and idealism as applied to "higher" education as compared with the word "lower." If we fail to make our higher education *qualitatively* different, with more ideals that are somewhat intangible, we shall not be doing anything except carrying on an aggravated and elaborated form of high-school "illness" through the college course. I think that we all realize that failure lies in that direction.

There will be three general groups of students and faculty: a lower, a medium, and a higher group—an inferior, an average, and a superior division. The shape of the curve in which they will eventually fall will depend upon the nature of the group in the particular institution under consideration. The larger the institution the nearer it will approach an ordinary curve of variation. We should treat the three groups very differently. We should look for and eliminate the lower group in a little bit more gentlemanly way than we do at present. The effort to make the first two years of college different from the last two, and the effort to arouse the search for opportunity and the recognition of opportunity in the first two years, give us a fair way of getting rid of the inferior student. Nowadays we ask the boy or girl to get on a train called "college" at the beginning of the freshman year. The train doesn't come up to a platform again and stop until they are ready for

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their degree. During its journey, which is at a tremendous rate of speed, various unfortunates leave the train. They do not land on their feet. They carry with them a suitcase full of family hopes and home-town gossip. When they land that suitcase breaks open and the rest of their lives may be spent in picking up the débris. Why not slow the train down at a platform half-way through, to allow those who are "car-sick" or convinced of the fact that they have an "engagement at home" that is more desirable, to leave the train at that point permanently with a receipt for having gone that far without having assaulted the conductor, or anything of that kind. We can then put back into the train the men who are capable of standing the longer, harder journey. Frankly, we haven't capitalized, we haven't used, our own system up to the limit of its ability, and I believe that that will be made one of the great steps toward recognizing the differences between students, eliminating the lower-grade ones, and in separating your faculty into its proper subdivisions. We all know that there are faculty men who prefer to deal with the first two phases of those opportunity problems. We know that there are faculty members who like nothing better than to deal with uninformed and immature students and to try to arouse their interest and make them recognize their real opportunity. Those men should be brought in contact with the freshmen and the sophomores; those men should be recognized as being different from that type of faculty member who by the weight of his own intellect, by his own power, has driven deep into the field of research and who is busy pushing human knowledge further in some field or fields. The latter type of man should have his material picked for him, he should not be brought into contact with freshmen, he should be brought into contact with juniors and seniors who have passed an elimination test, whose interest has been aroused and whose desire to recognize opportunity when they see it is already admitted. Once that is

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done, I think we shall be able to strengthen our faculties, I think we shall be able to find some men who will bridge the two types and who can serve with both groups of faculty members. We all know of them; they are almost priceless individuals. Such a man is as "keen" to teach a freshman as he is to go into his own laboratory and do research and can do both well. That type of man is rare but he will serve as the link between the two general groups of faculty members.

It is doubtful whether we realize quite how clumsy are some of the efforts that are being made at present. I should like to speak of one or two of them before I close. One I realize will not be popularly criticized, namely, the tutorial system for all students or for upper classmen. I do not at present believe in it. I think that for exceptional students it is well fitted, and that, by the way, brings me to the treatment of the middle and exceptional grades of students.

For the average student, the medium, the ordinary individual, "*use*" is the keynote. We have a right to *use* him, we have a right to *study* him, we have a right to see what his potentialities are, we have a right to consider him the type of product which will largely characterize our graduates when they go out into the world. He is our greatest problem and we have a right to move him around like the pawns in the chess game. We have a right to consider that he will always outnumber any other type of piece with which we have to play. He should be *used* intelligently and sympathetically.

The *exceptional* student should have our *cooperation*. It seems to me that between those two types of students comes the test of the tutorial system. For the exceptional student it seems to me that it is excellent. The tutorial system is whole-heartedly cooperative; it takes the student into an equal partnership, practically speaking. If he is able to keep pace with the tutor mentally he is taken in as "a

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member of the firm." Such a reward is quite proper. He reacts on the mind of the tutor and his own mind is in turn reacted on, and together they go further than either of them would have gone alone.

But what happens for the average student? For the average student in an American university *with the pressure of a degree looming large at the end of a four-year course*, the record of the tutor will be judged by the record of his pupils. If a majority of his pupils do not "pass" the general examination given to those who have been tutored, he, the tutor, will be branded as at least a potential failure—he will be looked upon as undesirable. What is the result? If he is dealing with an average mind and the examination is aimed for an exceptional student, he must cram the average mind in order that that average mind may pass the exceptional examination. The net result is that the tutor becomes a glorified form of cramming device in order to protect his own record in the eyes of the administration. I don't think that the American system can receive that very obviously English graft and grow it on our stock as successfully as it could if there wasn't the four-year time limit with the degree and fixed materialistic criterion of success or failure looming very large in the immediate future. If we could "postpone" our average students as long as we wanted to, then the tutor would work as he does in England and a real advance might ensue. When, however, the tutor and the pupil are tested by the general examination and the success of both is measured by the passing of that examination, it seems to me that with the poor foundation which our students frequently have "cramming" is bound to result. The *exceptional* student, I think, should be picked out of the system wherever you find him and an individual course planned for him. Students of this type will never be so large in numbers, even in the great universities, that we cannot well afford to give them individual attention and to plan their program with-

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out reference to any set rules or methods of standardization.

To sum up, in closing, then, I should say that if we criticize in a friendly sort of way, realizing that our criticism will often be wrong, but that it will always be honestly intended, both faculty and students on the basis of the way in which they approach, recognize, evaluate, use and create opportunities, we shall have gone far to build a common interest and to show them both that their problems are removed from one another—not by any great gap that can never be spanned, but simply by a very minor space of years which time most certainly will equalize. Once that fact is recognized and used, we shall be able to expect that students will understand more sympathetically the trials and troubles of faculty men who are rigorously being held up to a type of achievement in keeping with their ability. We shall, also, I think, find more and more faculty men who realize that the only children that they leave after them mentally, in addition to whatever their own small families may be—to inherit the earth—are not a textbook and not a lot of laboratory equipment or a few pieces of research alone, *but the living students with whom they come in contact*. That is the bridge between us and the future, and while I don't ever expect to see the figure of Mark Hopkins changed to a point where he and the student, instead of sitting on opposite ends of the log, are in the middle of the log with their arms around one another, still I do think that once in a while they might as well slide up a little bit closer, because in these days the noise of our materialistic civilization, as Dean Effinger has pointed out, makes them both slightly "hard of hearing," and to get a little closer to one another, realizing that their problems are almost identical, is, I think, the first step in the larger problem of a permanent type of cooperation.

IX

PERSONNEL TECHNIQUE AND FRESHMAN GUIDANCE

ADAM LEROY JONES

It would no doubt be futile to attempt to arrange in the order of their importance the factors which make a college effective, but there would be few to dispute the statement that one of the most important is the care given to the needs and merits of the individual student. The wise selection of its students, the provision made for adjusting them to the life and work of the college, the attention given to their health, to their economic needs, to their intellectual demands, and to their moral and religious life as well as to their instruction, are but elements in a whole which has received the somewhat forbidding designation *Personnel Technique*.

In the college of fifty years ago, in which objectives were relatively simple, the curriculum relatively fixed and narrow, and in which the student body was relatively homogeneous in its aims, its preparation, and its cultural background, the need for individual attention and guidance was less manifest and it is said to have been met with a large measure of success through an intimate contact of student and teacher, which is seldom possible under present conditions. The revolutionary changes in the curriculum and the still greater changes in the personnel of the student body which have since taken place were not for a long time met by any significant change in caring for the needs of the individual student. Not long ago, and even now in some institutions, if the facts have been stated correctly, the college said to the student in effect: "You have met the requirements for admission. Here is the offering of the college. Take it or leave it; the responsibility rests entirely

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with you. You may be merely an inexperienced boy but you must look out for yourself."

Such an attitude does not in present conditions make for an effective college. Most colleges are aware of this and many of them have given their best efforts to provide an intelligent plan of procedure. No survey of the situation can be fully up to date. Changes are constantly being introduced and new contributions are to be expected at any time. President Louis B. Hopkins' masterly study of the whole subject¹ as handled in fourteen institutions is well known. The data collected by the Commission on Personnel Technique of the Association of American Colleges have been obtained from inquiries sent to the more important institutions in the United States.

Its two reports in 1926 and 1927, based on data furnished by 330 and 281 colleges, respectively, cover with some fullness the whole matter of the selection of freshmen, their placement in their classes, their orientation in college work and college life and their intellectual and moral guidance. Some 180 colleges out of 281 reporting in the fall of 1926 employ some system of selection other than that of scholastic preparation alone. In these colleges character is listed as the most significant consideration. Tests of various kinds, usually some sort of general intelligence test, are given by more than 15 per cent.; "personality" is taken into account by more than 12 per cent., "general ability" and "fitness for college" by nearly 11 per cent., health by nearly 11 per cent., "leadership" by about 5 per cent., and "participation in school life," "possibility of service," and "purpose and promise" by a few others. It is notable that the various characteristics mentioned are not defined with any accuracy by the colleges mentioning them, and that very little is said about the method by which the qualities are to be measured. This does not mean that the terms used do not stand for

¹ *Personnel Procedure in Education*, by Louis B. Hopkins. The Educational Record Supplement, Vol. VII, No. 4, Oct., 1926.

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something real; however desirable it might be to have exact definitions and an objective scale, there is no question that in many institutions these supplementary means of selection are at present employed intelligently and effectively.

The sources of information regarding the extent to which the several qualities are possessed by applicants are usually the statements of high-school principals or other school authorities, personal references and personal interviews. Statements from employers, from alumni, from clergymen, and from other acquaintances are likewise used in a number of cases. The candidate's own statement, either in letters or on a self-estimate blank, has been found useful by a number of institutions. In some instances the habits and attitudes of the student are inferred from answers to leading questions given on the application blank, covering such points as his activities outside the classroom, his reasons for going to college, his reading other than that assigned in connection with his courses, and his comments on the books which he has read. Some colleges seek especially students with a Christian attitude; some give special attention to those of limited means, strong character, ambition, and fair ability. It is interesting to note that one college requires recommendation as to character in the case of men, and as to personality in the case of women applicants.

Of the institutions using tests of some kind, most use some form of intelligence or psychological examination, and a few use also an English test. There are occasional institutions which use in addition a modern language test and a mathematics test. A number of colleges have a highly developed selective system, including the following elements:

- (1) Record of academic achievement, including school record and in some cases entrance examinations.
- (2) Relative standing in some form of general aptitude test.
- (3) Qualities and achievements which indicate ability to do college work successfully and to be of future service.

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The item most difficult to evaluate and in which there are the greatest differences in practice is that last named. It may take into account only a few significant items or it may call for a wide range of information regarding the candidate's character and performance, his school activities, his initiative and originality, his special aptitudes, his achievement in the face of obstacles. On the other hand, conclusions may be based upon a few formal recommendations. No definite formula as yet has been developed for the exact measurement of these factors. It is undoubtedly true that no single system will be equally applicable in all institutions. Each college must study its own situation and determine what is best for it, but a bare formal mechanical system is not the ideal for any college.

The administration of selective systems is sometimes in the hands of one administrative officer with the cooperation of his staff. In other cases it is in the hands of a committee of the faculty. Usually the registrar, the dean, the president, a director of admissions, a university examiner, or the secretary, is responsible for the administration of the entrance requirements. This function is exercised in a large and apparently growing number of cases by administrative officers. This is as it should be, since uniformity and effectiveness of administration can not be hoped for if the work is carried out by a committee of faculty members whose duties through most of the year have little or nothing to do with the evaluation of admission credentials.

After the freshmen are admitted, the next problem, if they are to be treated effectively, is that of their classification. To carry out such a classification successfully it is evident that information over and above that contained in the entrance records is desirable. A satisfactory classification calls for information regarding achievement as well as aptitudes. Records coming from a great variety of schools are not easily compared owing to differences in standards and in the application of those standards. Satis-

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factory information regarding the student's achievement in various subjects can be obtained only if all students have been measured by the same yardstick. Colleges admitting all of their students by means of college entrance examinations could perhaps use the results of those examinations for the purpose with a fair measure of success. However, experiment has been proceeding lately in the direction of what have been called placement examinations. These examinations are usually of the new type and are given to all members of the freshman class.

Our 1926 report showed that up to that time more than 60 per cent. of the 330 colleges reporting were employing a psychological examination. About 35 per cent. gave also an English examination. A number of colleges were giving tests in mathematics and a few more giving tests in one or more of the modern languages. A few also were giving examinations in chemistry, English, zoology or voice placement. About 60 per cent. were giving a medical examination. In most of these colleges the subject-matter examinations were of local origin. However, the Iowa Placement Examinations were used to a considerable extent. Many colleges giving such examinations were giving them simply for purposes of information. But about 40 per cent. were segregating students in separate sections according to the excellence of their performance in these examinations. In a number of cases the psychological examination in conjunction with the subject-matter examinations was employed in placing the students in certain of their classes. Occasionally in courses for which there is no prerequisite in secondary-school work, such as the course in Contemporary Civilization at Columbia, the results of the psychological examination alone may be used as a basis of placement.

In one institution which has a highly developed system for placing its freshmen in their classes the new student meets his faculty adviser on the first day of registration

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armed with an adviser's card which carries the following information: home address, age, city address if any, number of minutes travel daily if not resident at the college, amount of financial support from parents, full record in school activities, school discipline and health, his entrance record with quality grades in each subject, entrance deficiencies if any, and advanced credit if any, score in code in an intelligence examination and score in English, mathematics and modern-language placement examination. Except for the first few items which the candidate supplies, the card has been prepared by the office of admissions. The student brings also detailed health records. All this would seem to present a fairly adequate picture of his equipment, and to make possible his proper placement in his classes. What he needs next is proper advice.

Our inquiry disclosed the fact that some 75 per cent. of the institutions replying had faculty advisers. About 20 per cent. definitely reported that they had no such advisers. In approximately 50 per cent. of the colleges replying the advisers were responsible in the matter of students' schedules, and in some 15 per cent. more the advisers while not definitely responsible did regularly assist the student to some extent in the preparation of his schedule. Eighty per cent. of the colleges replied that faculty advisers give advice on other educational matters and in an additional 7 or 8 per cent. some advice was given by them incidentally or if requested by the student. About 70 per cent. stated that the faculty advisers gave personal advice to students and some 20 per cent. in addition indicated that such advice was given occasionally or upon request. In 60 per cent. of the colleges advisers give vocational advice though frequently only in a limited way or incidentally.

Evidently, as might be expected, the giving of personal advice, vocational advice, and educational advice, other than that having to do with the schedule, is not very fully organized and is largely incidental or dependent upon the indi-

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vidual student or the individual adviser. The reply of the president of one small college may be to some extent representative of others. It is as follows:

We have no special faculty advisers for freshmen nor is there any need for such an arrangement in our type of college. We have one hundred and fifteen students and nineteen professors and instructors. This whole group lives intimately together on the college campus. Each of us knows each student within a very short time. Our faculty meetings are frequently discussions about proper advice for individual students, all of whom all of us know. The work of our freshman year is entirely prescribed and there are no alternatives from which the freshman class can choose.

Such a plan, if fully carried out, would have many advantages in a really small college, though one may wonder whether an occasional student might not be in the way of getting more advice than he could assimilate.

The question, "Do you have other than faculty members assigned to full or part time advising of freshmen?" brought an affirmative reply in approximately one-third of the cases. In most of these cases the adviser in question was a dean or registrar or a member of the personnel staff. In a few cases upper classmen served as student counsellors or "big brothers." In only about 40 per cent. of the institutions replying was it stated that students are required to confer with their advisers but possibly only at the registration period or in the matter of schedules. In the case of institutions requiring students to report to their advisers, more than one-third require more than three conferences in the course of the year. Three institutions require weekly conferences; one of the three specifies that these conferences are group and not individual conferences. In many institutions the conference with the adviser is optional or on call or by special appointment. The time allotted for a single interview is in most cases not definitely fixed. Where it is fixed, the time varies from five or ten minutes to approximately one-half hour.

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The replies to these questions do not indicate clearly that advisers for freshmen are on any different basis, or that they function differently from those for other classes.

Our next subject of inquiry had to do with "survey courses" for freshmen—such courses as those in Contemporary Civilization and other general introductory courses. Some replies were obviously given under a misunderstanding, but it appears that about sixty-six institutions out of the 281 were giving survey courses, and several others indicated that they had such courses under consideration or were expecting to give them in the near future. Two institutions indicated that they had given them in the past but had discontinued them. Of the sixty-six institutions giving such courses forty-one reported that they were helpful in varying degrees. Some were very enthusiastic, some had found them satisfactory but not of exceptional value, and some had not had sufficient experience to justify them in giving a definite reply.²

In the matter of Freshman Week, it appears that more than 60 per cent. of the institutions replying have a Freshman Week program in one form or another. In general, the dean or the president with or without the assistance of a committee, or some other administrative officer, is responsible for the program. Freshman "Week" lasts in some cases only one day but the practice of devoting a longer or shorter preliminary period to the orientation of the student in his new surroundings is extending rapidly among colleges. From the reports received, only one college which had ever tried Freshman Week had given it up, and apparently in its case the attempt had been made to introduce the freshman to all the details of the college world rather than simply to give her sufficient acquaintance with the college to enable her to find her own way around. The program of Freshman Week varies greatly in different col-

² The Commission decided to press its inquiries on this subject in greater detail as a partial basis for its report in January, 1928.

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leges. At the minimum it requires little more than the formality of arranging a program and of registration. At the other extreme is the program which attempts to put the new student in touch with the whole academic, social and moral environment. The program may be made up almost wholly of lectures—a practice sharply criticized by some colleges—or it may include examinations, interviews, picnics, dinners, parties, visits to the library and laboratories, athletic events and a dozen other things. The various undertakings may be classified under the following headings: (1) Tests, (2) Registration, (3) Instructions in regulations, (4) Information regarding the history and ideals of the college, and advice regarding college life and its obligations, (5) Practical advice on one or a score of the phases of college life, and (6) Introduction to the social, athletic, moral and religious life of the institution.

A bare enumeration of the items as reported by one or another of the colleges is instructive. These include, besides tests and registration, addresses by the president, dean, registrar, librarian, faculty advisers, representatives of religious organizations or of Phi Beta Kappa, by vocational advisers, representatives of student organizations, of athletic teams, and so forth. Perhaps no institution has addresses by all of those mentioned but the average is dangerously high.

The topics of these talks are varied. They include the regulations of the college, the history of the college, its ideals and its service, the opportunities of a college course, the value of scholastic standards, the use of the library, the use of books, college life and college environment, freshman ideals, how to study and how to take examinations, how to study English or other individual subjects, how to take notes, student government, the honor system, honor among college students, extra-curricular activities, fraternities, the difference between high school and college, the use of leisure, budgeting time, budgeting money, how to play, how

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to keep well, the alumni, vocational choice, cooperation, the place of science in the curriculum, the place of liberal arts in the curriculum, and many others. In one college at least the addresses are supplemented by a question box. Here is a list out of which a score of useful programs might be made. No one has tried to cover them in a single program.

Sometimes the freshmen are shown typical scientific experiments, the working of some of the laboratories, and expositions of some of the scientific enterprises in which one or another of the departments may be engaged. In some colleges they tour the campus in small groups under suitable guidance. They may be shown the actual working of the library, etc., etc.

The social part of the program which is included in most cases likewise differs greatly in different colleges. It may consist of no more than a class luncheon with or without representatives from the faculty or upper classes, it may be a breakfast or a dinner or a picnic or a smoker, or a reception by the president or by the dean. In one college the mayor and all the ministers in town assist. The Christian Associations sometimes give a supper; in one college a barbecue replaces the supper. In another the freshmen have all meals together the first two days with representatives of the faculty-student council. There are stunt shows, moving pictures of college events, dancing, tennis matches and other athletic events, organ recitals, vespers. There are a dozen variants.

It is found in some colleges that not only are favorable results noticed in the freshman class but that the older classes in college take a better attitude toward the freshmen and toward the college as a whole. Some colleges have received strong commendations from parents and alumni.

More than one college testified that as a result of their first trial of Freshman Week a year ago they found that the students were better orientated in their college work than they had previously been after a term or even a whole

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year in college. Clearly Freshman Week or some other special program for familiarizing the new student with his duties, surroundings, and opportunities is the duty of every institution which wishes to be classed as an effective college.

It is evident that in some cases the program was too extensive and in others there were too many lectures and not enough that was concrete and personal. The overwhelming majority, however, spoke in definite approval, some of them very enthusiastically. The expressions of "great value," "much accomplished by it," "good effect," "very much worth while," "very necessary," "would not be without it," and the like occur in most of the reports.

The good results are noted in a number of different directions. It is found that the freshmen are placed in their classes, are made familiar with the regulations, and know how to proceed without friction from the first; that they do better work and have a better understanding of their duties and of their relations to the college; that their sense of responsibility to the college and to the community is increased; that they are much less likely to be homesick; that they are given, in this way, an early opportunity to come in contact with college officials and with student leaders; that they see the persons and the places they must know later and get an introduction to a friendly atmosphere through people who know what it means rather than through "callous sophomores"; that they are introduced to college in a safe and sane manner less influenced by older students than would otherwise be the case; that class solidarity is established; that the freshmen are inspired with high purposes and that they early take a good attitude toward their class work and enter into excellent personal relationships with the faculty.

Our inquiry regarding the discipline of college freshmen does not go into great detail, but we were interested to know who in the several colleges was responsible for discipline during the freshman year. About one-half of the colleges

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replying to the Commission's inquiry reported the administration of discipline is in the hands of the dean or the dean of men and the dean of women. A committee called variously "Discipline Committee," "Administrative Committee," "Advisory Committee," "Student Welfare Committee," is responsible in slightly more than 10 per cent. of the cases. In a few instances a Faculty-Student Committee is associated with an administrative officer, usually the dean. One institution replied that no particular officer is responsible for discipline during freshman year.

In reply to the question as to the *ultimate responsibility* for discipline, it appears that out of 281 institutions, the faculty is responsible in seventy-four, the president in fifty-one, the dean in thirty-six, a committee in thirty-four, the president and dean in fourteen. The Student Council or Senate is responsible in two colleges, a joint Student-Faculty Council in two, and various combinations of administrative officers in the others.

That the colleges replying to the questionnaire indicate a reasonably good representation of the colleges throughout the country, so far as registration is concerned, will be clear from the fact that of the 274 replying to the question asking the number of freshmen admitted to the college in September, 1926, three admitted fewer than fifty students, and four admitted more than 2,500. One of the last group admitted nearly 4,000 freshmen. The largest group—fifty-four colleges—admitted from 101 to 150, and the next largest, fifty-one colleges, admitted from 151 to 200 freshmen. Of the total number, 229 admitted fewer than 400 freshmen, and forty-five admitted more than that number.

Our last group of questions had to do with the types of educational research bearing directly on the freshman year, which are now under way. Of the 281 institutions replying, thirty-seven did not answer this question and 104 replied that they were at present conducting no research on this subject; 140, or just one-half, have under way

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research upon some topic bearing directly on the freshman year. In all probability many of these research enterprises are very informal, and in some they perhaps represent only a general interest in some question rather than systematic research.

The subjects being investigated by more than ten institutions are the following:

RESEARCH STUDIES	
<i>Subject</i>	<i>Institutions</i>
Investigation of orientation courses, etc.	14
Correlation between mental, psychological or intelligence tests and college grades	17
Correlation between high school and college records	12
General studies of psychological tests	18
The causes of freshman mortality	12

Other subjects listed by two or more institutions are:

- Freshman week
- Correlation between high school grades and intelligence tests
- Sectioning on basis of ability
- Methods of selecting students
- Results and improvement of advisory system
- Survey courses
- Placement tests
- Vocational guidance
- Freshman curriculum
- Probationary admission of doubtful freshmen
- Value of intelligence tests as basis for admission and classification
- Test results
- Physical examinations
- Secondary schools at which freshmen have prepared
- Personnel work with freshmen

The remaining subjects of investigation, each mentioned by one institution, number more than forty, but it would appear that in most cases actual research has not yet proceeded far.

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It is very important that the matters having to do with the selection and guidance of freshmen be made a subject of careful and thorough research. Much work has been done in the field, but without question the time has come when careful evaluation of such work should be made. Indeed, the whole matter of personnel administration in college has been subjected to criticism, and it is to be hoped that means will be found in the near future for assessing the results.

X

THE SMALL COLLEGE AND PERSONNEL PROCEDURE

RAYMOND WALTERS

The shades of a certain log, a certain boy and a certain professor have already been summoned before you. The picture, evoked as it has been to the point of triteness, nevertheless persists as a genuine symbol. Mark Hopkins represents the Happy Warrior of college teachers. He represents what the small college strives to possess in special measure: the human touch in transmitting knowledge. A precious tradition, this, in an era when the yearly increase of many a large university exceeds the total attendance of the old-time New England college.

There are, it must be said, criticisms of the small college by those who charge a failure to live up to its high tradition. It is pointed out that, with the general influx of students in the past decade, enrolments have been increased without a corresponding increase in teachers so that there are many large classes in many small colleges. Waiving further comment I leave this particular question to the consciences of presidents and deans. I talked recently with a friend—a well-informed, able and fair man—who declared that “most small colleges are sporting laurels which withered decades ago; that they are not only sleepily unaware of modern educational proctise but, in respect to personal attention to the individual student, they are leagues behind the large universities which have built up scientific personnel administration.”

Such criticism is good for our souls. We should face it and ask ourselves whether we of the small colleges are doing our full duty by our students in our personal relations with them.

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As I see it, the approach to personnel procedure should be to consider first of all what we want such procedure to accomplish. This will depend, I think, upon the basic aim, the educational philosophy of the individual small college. Among various aims, let us consider two. Your college may emphasize the social and democratic purpose of education, regarding it as training for citizenship, for public and economic usefulness. Your college may, on the other hand, stress the intellectual, the scientific, the artistic, with the Greek ideal of developing the independent human personality.

Now, if the broadly democratic purpose predominates, your college will foster what we call student activities. It might well follow that your faculty will, in their personal relations with the student body, participate in and guide those multitudinous organizations which energetic undergraduates build up and which afford a certain training for practical affairs.

For the college which has intellectual, scientific, artistic emphasis, undergraduate activities will be encouraged as a wholesome balance-wheel but will be kept distinctly secondary; and here your professors will deal with each student as an independent personality who may conceivably contribute to the cultural, the scientific, the spiritual life of his generation.

I have over-simplified, of course. It is possible for a small college to combine parts of both ideals. The matter of emphasis, however, will remain and personal relations between teachers and students must be determined as this emphasis is determined.

An outstanding personal leader is simply invaluable in education, as in the world of business and politics. There is, however, a tendency to overstress the fine saying of Emerson that an institution is the lengthened shadow of one man. Emerson also declared that every man's progress is through a succession of teachers. In a liberal arts col-

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lege, where students make their acquaintance with the diverse and conflicting schools of human thought, it is important that they have varied and balanced stimulus and guidance. For this we clearly need, not one vigorous personality, but a group of vigorous personalities. The ideal would be reached when teachers of varied views are in accord with the broad aim of their individual college and when they present this aim to the students from different personal angles. You cannot, by official action, delegate this highest of all personal relations in education to a dean, or to course advisers, or to a committee or to personnel experts. There are certain technical aspects—hour credits, quality points and that sort of thing—and certain personal problems and mental hygiene problems which can be delegated. I insist, however, that these are subordinate, that the vital thing is communicating to students the tone of the college, and that, for this, there is no substitute for the personal touch of your teachers. The prime difficulty is not one of procedure or methods but of getting teachers who in their scholarship, in their scholarly and human spirit, embody what you would transmit. If we have such men and women in our faculties, their influence will carry in perfectly normal and unpremeditated ways.

I have referred to certain minor but important aspects of personal relations. In these aspects the large universities are utilizing scientific personnel in an admirable manner and with fine success. You all know of the prodigious increase in enrolment in American higher institutions in the past decade, an increase in which the large universities have borne the main burden. I happen to be the annual purveyor of these statistics and I have found that the twenty-five largest universities—less than 4 per cent. of the total of 780 collegiate institutions—now give instruction to approximately 40 per cent. of all the collegiate, graduate and professional students in the United States.

As to the way in which the large universities are meeting the problems attendant upon their size President L. B.

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Hopkins has testified in his report on personnel procedure at Dartmouth, Minnesota, Stanford, Iowa, Northwestern, Chicago, Michigan, Cornell, Syracuse, Columbia, Yale, Harvard, Princeton and North Carolina.

Typical of such organized procedure is that of the University of Minnesota, of which a full description was given recently in *Minnesota Chats*, by Editor T. E. Steward, who maintains that "the university sees the students in quite as important a light as their mothers and fathers do." Here are the divisions which Minnesota has developed for "the general supervision of studentship and student life."

- I. Supervision of classroom accomplishment.
- II. Supervision of student activities outside the classroom, both constructive and social.
- III. Supervision of student behavior in those cases where this becomes a matter for university attention.
- IV. Supervision of students' living conditions.
- V. Attention to the health of students.
- VI. Attention to, and help with, the knotty personal problems which from time to time are likely to confront young persons.
- VII. Encouragement for the student to take a voluntary part in activities that will strengthen him in culture, in health, in outlook, and in effective response to practical situations.
- VIII. Supervision of fraternities and sororities.

In their provision for psychologists, psychiatrists and personnel experts some of the larger institutions have taken advanced steps. For a small college to undertake a program of this scope and magnitude would be to put on the armor of Saul.

There are, however, measures of personnel procedure in large universities which can profitably be copied. I have been asked to tell what we are doing at Swarthmore College as to these and other personal-relations methods.

(1) A freshman reception program. This idea, originated by President Little, of Michigan, when he was at the

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University of Maine, is now followed in many institutions, mostly large universities, where from three days to a week are devoted to a program of lectures, placement tests, personal interviews and social affairs. My conviction, based on our Swarthmore experience, is that, for the small college, the chief value of the reception program is less to instruct than to create an attitude, and that the program should therefore be limited to about three days. The attitude of the freshman toward college may, I believe, be significantly influenced when the faculty greets him before the sophomores do.

(2) My second point jumps to the seniors. The perplexity of students as to their life-work is often serious indeed. Without diverging from its liberal-education ideal, the small arts college could place its undergraduates in touch with the best vocational information obtainable. Here college administrators can be profitably served by the Psychological Corporation, the Personnel Research Federation, and National Committee of Bureaus of Occupation.

Some of us are convinced that, in the psychological tests, the psychologists have developed a useful measuring-rod of human capacity in certain directions. Appreciating as we do the problems and perplexities of our students as to their life-work, the maladjustments of many young graduates who are anything but square pegs in square holes, we teachers and administrators are looking hopefully to similar help from the psychologists in this field. When progress seems slow and there are apparent set-backs we ought, in all fairness to the present research workers, to remember how slowly advances came in chemistry, in physics, in other sciences and we ought to think in terms of quarter centuries and not of one year or five.

(3) Health—physical and mental. Most small colleges now have college physicians, but whether this service is nominal or real is uncertain, I think. It ought to be real.

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As to mental hygiene, Professor Paterson, of Minnesota, has summarized all that may be expected in a small college at this time: "Knowledge of the more obvious symptoms of mental hygiene problems, so that those requiring the special services of a physician, a psychologist, or a psychiatrist, may be referred to the proper agencies."

And now I should like to indicate several aspects in which the small college may, by virtue of its smallness, be the ideal Alma Mater, knowing her children not as a regimented host, but one by one.

There is the social side, using the term in the broad sense. William of Wykeham's "Manners makyth Man" has never been bettered as an expression of what a code may do for the individual, and the small college has a peculiar opportunity in impressing a noble code of manners upon a generation in need of it. Deeper than this is the sense for right conduct in all human relations. The real teachers of the social code, of right conduct are those who seldom talk about them and then never priggishly, but whose lives are veritable precepts. In the small college great professors have done this and every small college should try to find and to hold the rare souls capable of it.

On a lower shelf than the foregoing is the practical guidance that deans and advisers can aspire to give. This guidance ought to be systematically arranged for. There should be a schedule of interviews with students and a few notes on what is found as to the individual's state of health, mind and scholastic progress may profitably be entered on a card from time to time.

In some institutions detailed personnel cards are used, with photographs in one corner and a multiplicity of spaces for all sorts of entries. I devised an encyclopedic form of this type myself during the war in an officers' training school of 10,000 candidate officers. There is value in having, in some central office in college, records which bring together all information that may be useful, not excluding

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photographs. Common sense is needed, I think, as a check against making too much of any such system.

We call first the students who are doing best. One effect of this is to take the chill off a summons to the dean's office. It needn't mean trouble, students find. The important part, I believe, is to pay at least as much attention to the good student as to the poor one whose offenses demand it. To tell a freshman who is doing well that he should "go after" Phi Beta Kappa or Sigma Xi or Sigma Tau is to give him a stimulus that may help.

In these interviews we talk about "sealing wax and things": football, fraternity scholastic averages, slips of grammar and pronunciation, individual study plans, honors courses—anything that seems to be pertinent at the moment. I believe that this random method avoids the danger of professional patter and vain repetitions. Frequently students confide their personal troubles, knowing that nothing said in the dean's office is ever quoted as to individuals. Merely to bring out into the light problems over which they have been brooding is a relief. At Swarthmore formal counseling is done by the dean of the college, by the dean of women, by the department heads who act as course advisers, and by the college physician and director of physical education. But all of our faculty have a share in it and doubtless the most valuable counsel is given by them in utterly informal fashion.

Finally, as to the intellectual side, the aspect of education in which many good persons in our democratic land have no strong faith. They have somehow confused pedantry with scholarship. They value first-rateness in every sphere except the scholarly. In our honors courses at Swarthmore we are engaged in an effort to change this conception, among those at least with whom we deal. We are trying to show how, instead of being dull and cold and selfish, the true scholar has imagination, warm feeling and a desire to serve.

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More particularly from the viewpoint of the personal relations we are discussing, honors courses are, I believe, invaluable. Beyond the advantage inherent in a small group is the peculiar relation between student and professor at Swarthmore due to the external examination system of the honors courses. The professor does not set the examinations; he works with the student in his preparation for examinations over the prescribed ground to be given by visiting professors from other institutions. There is thus a comradeship in a joint intellectual enterprise, a meeting of mind and heart which seem to me to be the ideal personal relationship in education.

The great test of the small college, may I suggest in closing, will come in exalting the things of the intellect and of the spirit. If we can, in our small classes and by our close touch, stimulate our young men and women to go their way themselves, to prize the highest and to strive faithfully for it, then we shall have done service as true counselors of the intellectual and spiritual life.

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FOURTH PART

EFFECTIVE TEACHING

Chapter

XI. Does Research Interfere with Teaching?

Edward A. Pace

XII. Sectioning on the Basis of Ability

Lucius H. Holt

XIII. The Contribution of the Library to Effective Teaching

Silas Evans

Bibliography

XI

DOES RESEARCH INTERFERE WITH TEACHING?

EDWARD A. PACE

The question emerges in the course of discussion regarding the effectiveness of the college. This, it is generally agreed, depends mainly upon the proper functioning of the faculty, and, by implication, upon a clear understanding as to the relative value for the college of different forms of activity in which the members of the faculty may engage. Of the various kinds of service which the individual teacher can render, only two are considered in this paper. Both are important. Each calls out the finest qualities and provides opportunity for greater achievement. Each, however, tends to monopoly of time and effort; and the tendency is stronger in proportion to the success attained in either. It is pertinent, then, to ask whether they conflict: Does research interfere with teaching?

Stated in these general terms, the question admits of but one answer. Research as a means of extending knowledge does not interfere with teaching whereby knowledge is communicated. The two occupations are not only compatible: they are complementary.

In the concrete, however, several situations have to be considered. First, there is the graduate school. Its principal, or rather its exclusive, purpose is research. The professor engaged in his own investigation directs his students in the handling of special problems. They are supposed to be familiar with the status of the science as a whole, its principles and methods. They have also developed the ability to think for themselves, to criticize, to open up new lines of inquiry. More important still, they, presumably, have laid a broad foundation on which their

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specialized study can rest in security and keep its proportionate value. They are teaching themselves, day by day, in the library or the laboratory. The further information which they need is supplied through discussion and other seminar exercises. In this case, evidently, research on the professor's part does not interfere with his teaching.

Just how the professor's efficiency is enhanced by his research need not be explained here in detail. The significant point is that the professor, through his own investigations, is not only adding to the store of knowledge but is also increasing his ability to give his students what they need. Though they are, to a very large extent, independent, he is responsible in approving their work as genuine contributions to science. Both his own reputation and that of his university are at stake. Were he to neglect research in order to get time for some more congenial occupation, he would be found wanting in the very thing for which he was appointed. His position requires that he make research his first consideration.

In the next place, we find the professor who conducts graduate work and at the same time teaches undergraduates. In many of our universities this combination of duties is carried by the ablest members of the faculty. It is felt that they bring to the task a larger experience. From their own productive scholarship they draw an inspiration which is contagious. Their teaching is dynamic. It stimulates. The student finds the class-period too short and returns with eagerness. He has caught some of the spirit which research develops in his instructor. Between them, cooperation makes the teaching a success.

This desirable result presupposes in the professor both the ability to teach and the determination to bring out the full capacity of each student. If he lacks either, his research may be fruitful but his teaching will be barren. Eventually, he will become aware that his work with undergraduates is a failure, a thing which they will

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have long before recognized. And then, if he is wise in his own behalf and has some regard for the university, he will relinquish his teaching and confine himself to research.

The third situation, that of the separate college, differs from the other two in certain important respects.

The college has a definite educational function to perform. It undertakes to complete the development of the student who has received such training and information as the elementary and the secondary school may have given him. Whatever else it may do for him it has to equip him with the knowledge which he needs in order to live uprightly and usefully in any career he may enter. Even when he is plainly destined for law, medicine or engineering, he has none the less to acquire certain habits of thought and action which go to make the man. Neither talent nor learning can dispense with those qualities. On the contrary, with greater skill and broader information responsibility in the use of them increases. The college that shirks this part of its obligation will not develop in its students that sense of responsibility which is fundamental to social welfare. To bewail the lawlessness of college graduates and yet do nothing to cultivate the law-abiding spirit among those who are still in college, implies either weakness or indifference in a matter of grave public concern.

On the intellectual side, the student has to lay a foundation that will prepare him for professional courses or for purely scientific work. He will specialize, of course, but his specialization will be productive only where it tapers upward from a broad and solid base. The need of such breadth is now generally recognized. To supply it, various outlines, surveys, orientation courses, and the like, have been introduced. The latest of these is both typical and suggestive. Sixteen specialists giving to the one student through one volume "a preliminary view of the rich intellectual fields that lie before him" represent fairly well the college staff in cooperation. And this is essential. The

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college teacher, in order to contribute to the attainment of the college purpose, must do team-work. Otherwise, his individual work in the class-room, however brilliant, will not accomplish its aim. Supposing that his own education has been thorough and comprehensive, that he has mastered the principles of education and the theory of correlation—there yet remains the *practice* of correlating, not subjects in the abstract but these subjects as actually taught by his fellow instructors; and again not a correlation for an ideal group of students but for those who are presently before him. This is no light task. It demands individual study, consultation and, above all, a sense of proportion.

Let us suppose that through a common understanding the courses have been so ordered as to secure the fullest possible correlation. How long will the arrangement hold good? With the advance in each department of science, the shifting of viewpoints and the emergence of new problems, the most flexible outline is subject to constant revision; and revised it must be if college teaching is to equip men either for professional career or for scientific pursuit.

The individual teacher may not be obliged to keep in touch with each and every change in fields other than his own. In fact, he will do well if he follow up the literature of his particular subject and select from the mass of details those essentials which are needed to bring his teaching up to date and yet give each topic its due share of emphasis.

Then there is the parallel advance in method, which for the teacher is of greater importance than the accumulation of facts. One who is so tenacious of the old that he disdains to give the new a trial is a misfit, quite as much out of place as another who takes up with every sort of novelty just because it is new. Neither is apt to gain anything from his more experienced colleagues, least of all from those who are beyond his immediate surroundings; and yet, unless he adjust himself to the changes in his own intellectual environment, what hope is there that he will develop in his

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students the power of self-adjustment which is, or should be, one of the chief results of education?

These implications of the teaching office are necessary for the functioning of the college. As it is bound by certain obligations to the community, it has both the right and the duty to require that each member of the staff shall contribute to its efficiency by doing the best possible work in his own subject and by cooperating with the other members. When he does these things to the height of his ability, he may properly engage in research and devote to it his surplus time and energy. But first and last he must teach. That is his *raison d'être*. For that purpose the college has called him to position in its faculty, given him opportunity and ensured him of compensation.

It follows, quite plainly, that a prime requisite for admission to the teaching office is the *will to teach*. Where that is lacking, neither abundance of knowledge, nor familiarity with the principles and methods of education, nor even the possession of a Ph.D. degree, is sufficient qualification. The man who accepts an appointment to the college staff as a makeshift, as a necessary evil to be endured until something better turns up, may be consulting his own interests, but he has no concern for the institution which employs him. The mistake is on the part of the college. It injures itself and does wrong to its students by securing them under false pretenses.

If the instructor's primary object is research, he may do good work in the class-room while his special problem is under discussion. He is likely, indeed, to give it more time and emphasis than it deserves, and to slight other topics. Outside of that one point, he may have the text-book as proxy and other approved authors as bailsmen, but his own liberated thought is on his sources or his apparatus or the latest monograph in which his problem is treated. The student is a secondary consideration, if he is considered at all. He must pick up such crumbs as are thrown him inci-

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dentally and assimilate the pebbles that are given him for bread. Naturally, his single aim is to convert them not into knowledge but into credits. And his estimate of the college is not thereby improved.

Under these circumstances research does not interfere with teaching for the simple reason that there is no teaching in any rational sense of the word. There is not even the formality of formal discipline. The only lesson given the students is that the class period is as much of a bore for the so-called instructor as it is for them, the reluctant seat-holders. Their minds, to be sure, are active. They are thinking how different their experience is when they are getting instruction in a really important subject from a wide-awake professor of football, a man who puts his whole soul into the business of teaching. The day may yet come when some veteran coach will include in his memoirs a chapter entitled—How to stimulate a squad and keep each player working with a will.

Meanwhile the colleges are having no end of diagnosis, etiology and prescription. The tendency is to locate the trouble in the student and apply the remedy to him. Thus, for insufficient preparation, stricter entrance requirements are indicated. For extra-curricular activities of the less virulent type, various counter-irritants are suggested. And for the epidemic of athleticitis, a whole list of measures, remedial or preventive, has been proposed. The aim in this case is to correct that "distortion of values" which results from over-attention to sport and thus arouse in the undergraduate a better appreciation of study.

Undeniably, there is wisdom in all this. There is reason to hope that the students will do their share towards removing the evil. But what of the teacher? If he also be found to suffer from a distortion of values, would it not be well to include him in our treatment?

It seems to me that the college could make a first step in the right direction by insisting that every applicant or nominee for a position on its staff shall regard teaching as

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his paramount duty—as a duty, moreover, that must be performed to the satisfaction of the college authorities before the teacher is allowed to engage in any other activity. He should be given to understand that good teaching is the basis of promotion, of increase in salary and of any other advantage that may accrue to him as a member of the faculty. Should he demur and let it be known that research is his principal object, the best thing for him and for the college would be to let him go back to the university where he will have full opportunity to carry on his investigation with no distraction from the class-room and no annoyance from students.

In the next place, if he is appointed, he should be required for a stated period, say a year, to give his entire time to teaching. And the college should have some means of ascertaining what sort of a teacher he is. If he is really doing good work, he will not resent supervision. If he has a fair amount of common sense, he will welcome criticism from more experienced teachers. Their comment and suggestions will be given him in private—which is somewhat different from the published criticism which the report of his investigation will or may receive.

Criticism he cannot escape. He has to choose between that of his students and that of a supervising colleague. The latter is apt to be constructive and helpful. As to the former; it may be useful for the college to get the students' point of view and their estimate of a teacher. But the college puts itself on trial when it appoints a man and then asks the students to judge of his qualifications. It says, in effect, to the teacher—We thought you were competent, but the students are thumbs down against you. We are sorry.

Whatever may be done in other bodies possessed of authority, the college should be the judge of the qualifications of its members. But it cannot judge fairly unless it employ the right method of getting at facts. When, and only when, these go to show that the teacher is doing satisfactorily the things which he was appointed to do, and further when it

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appears that by undertaking research he will not slacken in his teaching, he should be authorized to add research to his regular occupation.

Many fields of research are open to such a teacher. He should be encouraged, however, to work in that which lies immediately before him. He more than any one else is in a position to attack the very problems which are on the program of this Association. They are surely more vital to education than many of those which take up the time of the graduate student or of the candidate for the doctor's degree. These problems of the college cannot be solved by complaint from within or by censure from without. They call for systematic investigation. The teacher who will undertake that and get at the real causes of our difficulties will render the college a service of value. He will also give, in terms of fact, the final answer to the question at the head of this paper.

Should his productive scholarship lead him out of the college into the university where research becomes his principal occupation, he will have lost nothing through his years of good teaching. Nor will he, because of his clearer insight into the needs, weaknesses and capacities of the undergraduate, be the less competent to direct graduate students in the solution of specialized problems.

It is possible, on the other hand, that his success as a teacher will intensify his love of the work. He may come to the insight that in preparing men to live he is rendering a service no less valuable than he would if he were supplying new facts for men to learn. He will understand also that one of the best ways to further research is to equip men with the qualities which make the true investigator and not simply the dabbling dilettante—in particular with the power of judging what problems are worth while attacking and what results are of real significance.

To appoint a man of this type as director of graduate students who aspire to the teacher's office would go far toward the solution of our problems.

XII

SECTIONING ON THE BASIS OF ABILITY

LUCIUS H. HOLT

It would be well at the beginning for me to express the subject more fully as, Sectioning Students on the Basis of Classroom Achievement. Alas! that we cannot section them on ability! But it is the sad experience, I know, of all of us, that many a young man of excellent ability has expressed that ability either on the athletic field or in the so-called extra-curricular activities, and not in the classroom. What a pity it is that we cannot in some way inspire the masses of our students to list study among the extra-curricular activities!

This method of sectioning students has been in effect at West Point over one hundred years. It was established there sometime during the régime of the greatest of our early superintendents, Colonel Sylvanus Thayer. Colonel Thayer came to the superintendency in 1817. He was admirably fitted for his task. A graduate of Dartmouth, he had served for ten years with distinction in the Army, and for two years before he came to the Military Academy he had traveled abroad studying military schools and curricula. It was he who introduced at West Point our present academic year, which is quite unique. It was he who introduced the system of marking cadets every day and posting the marks at the end of each week so that the cadet may know the exact value which we have set upon his work. It was he, in general, who established the technical and scientific nature of our curricula. And it was he, among these other things, who introduced this system of sectioning according to classroom accomplishment.

Ever since that time (it did not appear in the regulations of 1816; it did appear in the regulations of 1823; the exact

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year of its introduction we cannot fix), we have followed the system. It has become as fixed a part of West Point as the buildings themselves.

Before I begin to discuss its nature and operation, and its advantages and disadvantages, I should mention one very important fact which makes the system easy of operation and successful with us. West Point has only a single course of study, wholly prescribed. It has, also, a time schedule which permits large portions of each class to recite at the same hour. It has, also, the liberal assistance of the Secretary of War's office in giving us enough instructors to enable us to have sections of between ten and fifteen students each.

I realize that these advantages do not exist in many of our sister institutions, but it is these very advantages which make the operation of this system of sectioning according to ability so simple. With 175 cadets reporting for mathematics at eight o'clock in the morning, divided into fourteen different sections, it is a simple matter to transfer up or down that portion of the class and keep the relative standing of each student where it should be.

I am getting a little bit ahead of my subject, but I feel that it is necessary to bring that particular point up in order to have you understand why we favor this system in all of our subjects. No such regimentation of attendance and no such simplicity of time schedule, I know, are possible in our civilian institutions with their elective courses and complicated hours of attendance.

The operation of the system, granting these fundamentals that I have mentioned, is simple in the extreme. When the students enter in what we call fourth-class year, your freshman year, they are all arranged in sections in alphabetical order. This arrangement persists for from four to six weeks. The work of those introductory weeks is instructional, of course, but is considered by each of the separate departments concerned as constituting a series of placement

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tests, you might say, in order to establish a preliminary arrangement of the class in order of merit. Then at some week-end, after four weeks or six weeks, whichever time is most convenient for the head of the department, new section rolls are made out in which the sections are arranged in order of merit for the work up to that time. Those sections being once so arranged, transfers are made weekly or fortnightly, according to the judgment of the head of the department concerned, on the basis of the average work done by the student. If he has maintained the average of his section in the succeeding weeks, he retains his place in the class; if, on the other hand, his work has fallen below the average of his section and the work of someone in the section below has risen above the average of that lower section, the two men are interchanged.

Remember, it is the average mark which is responsible for changing a man's section. He does not go down because he has missed a single recitation; he doesn't go up because on one particular occasion he has made a brilliant success. He has to establish, before he is either demoted or promoted, an average grade below or above that of the section in which he is placed.

After the semi-annual examinations a second roll of sections is published, based upon the work of the entire preceding term. Transfers are then made through the remainder of fourth-class year, but it has been our experience that the number of these transfers greatly diminishes as the weeks go by. There are occasional cases of young men who have been crammed in order to get through the first term's course and who fail badly as they come up against new material; and there are other cases, of course, of men who find themselves at the end of the first term and advance steadily as the months go by. But ordinarily the transfers necessary to retain approximate order of merit are rather few after the first few weeks of the second term.

That plan continues throughout the four years. As men go from one year to another and take up new courses, the

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initial arrangement in order of merit in the new course is based upon the final arrangement in order of merit of the nearest related course in the previous year. For example, at the beginning of mechanical engineering, the students are arranged in their final order in mathematics, which was completed the previous year. In the initial arrangement in order of merit for Spanish, they are arranged according to their final order of merit in French. In their initial order of merit in political science and economics, they are arranged according to their final order of merit in history.

So much, then, for the system itself. We have found it, as I say, easy, simple to operate, and successful. We believe that it has a number of decided advantages, and we frankly recognize some disadvantages.

It is advantageous, unquestionably, in my mind, for the instructor. Sometimes it would be a good idea for us to section our *instructors* as well as to section our students, and this system gives an opportunity to do that very thing. There are men, men of superior intellect, men interested in research, we will say, who make admirable instructors for the upper sections, but who many times lack the sympathy, the understanding, and, above all, the patience to deal with the duller men in the lower sections; and, on the other hand, there are men who are peculiarly able to handle efficiently the lower sections, but who would be unable to do good work with the upper sections.

The heads of departments under this system are able to section their instructors according to their particular abilities. Further, it is a tradition at West Point that the top sections and the bottom sections are the places of honor. New instructors are never put with either the top sections or the bottom sections; they are put with the vast middle or average of the class, where they find themselves and develop their abilities, and are moved up or down as their peculiar abilities warrant.

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Then, again, it is advantageous for the students. The top men are developed under this system as near their full capacity as we can possibly plan to do. Their lessons are longer; their lessons are harder; more collateral reading in some subjects is required; additional study from additional textbooks in other studies is required. The system allows us, giving a single course, as I said a moment ago, a certain amount of flexibility in the arrangement of our work. Instead of one course in mathematics, for example, there really are three courses in mathematics, and each one of those three courses is further subdivided by the instructors in charge of the separate sections according to the ability demonstrated by the cadets. We have thus a flexibility of adjustment which is not possible in our rigid course under any other system.

With the average cadet there is an advantage in this arrangement because his efforts are not overshadowed by a group of more brilliant minds in the section. He is competing with his equals, and many a man who might remain "mute, inglorious," in a mixed section is encouraged to express himself in the average section with which he finds himself.

The best benefit of the whole system, however, comes undoubtedly for the low men in the class, the duller minds. Many of those men in a mixed section would undoubtedly fall by the wayside and be discharged. In the sections as we have them arranged those men at the bottom of the class receive special attention under the most experienced officers of instruction we have. The officers become interested in them, and if a man can be inspired to work himself out of that section, there is the usual amount of joy in heaven. We like to save those men if it is possible to do it, and we have them in this group where we concentrate our best attention upon them.

Then the system as we see it is of advantage to the institution as a whole. We are able to eliminate promptly,

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and with a feeling of certainty that I think is sometimes lacking under other conditions, numbers of men who do not, and apparently cannot, come up to our standards. We will work with the earnest, intelligent boy, but we cannot waste the government's time and money upon the idle, the shiftless, the unprepared, and the inapt.

You must remember in this connection that we owe a duty to the government, for every student at West Point receives a scholarship. The students at West Point are in the Army, they are paid a sum of about \$100 a month, and we are spending in addition to that in our instructor force on each cadet about \$3,000 a year. We feel, therefore, that we have a right to eliminate rather mercilessly in the early stages of the course. As a matter of fact, the statistics over a hundred years show that we have eliminated forty-eight per cent. of those who have entered the Military Academy.

As for disadvantages, there are some, as I said, but we do not consider them important enough to outweigh the advantages I have mentioned. I have heard some people say, "Isn't it humiliating for your instructors to be assigned to the lower sections?" I have already partly answered that. It is one of the posts of honor to be assigned to the lower sections. I have had officers whom I proposed to relieve in order to save them the monotony of teaching the lower sections all the time, come to me and ask to be kept with those sections because they were interested in the sections and desired, if possible, to save the men.

How about cadets? Does it humiliate them to locate them in the bottom sections? That has not been our experience. In fact, I had a rather peculiar interview shortly before I left West Point to come here. One young man I called to my office because of the exceedingly poor work he had been doing during the past two weeks. He said very frankly to me, "There is a reason. I have heard that the instructor in the section below is perfectly splendid, so I thought I would get down there." He was looking after his own

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transfer in that particular connection. They do not feel humiliated. They have confidence in the fairness and justice of our marking system, and they accept its results as an evidence of an accurate value of their work.

As another objection, I have heard it said that these transfers break the contacts which have been formed between the instructor and his section. Perfectly true: but those contacts are quickly reestablished in our institution where recitations are demanded of every student every day. Furthermore, it is something of an advantage in the military service to accustom a young man to the idiosyncracies of a number of peculiar commanding officers. This system of transfer from section to section helps to accomplish just that result.

One of the difficulties, however, which cannot be got over, and which I present to you frankly this afternoon, is the difficulty of establishing a uniform system of grading throughout the different sections. There is where the individual idiosyncracies of the instructors come in and defy perfect correction. In order to do the best we can with that problem, the heads of departments have conferences with their instructors; they present graphs showing how the line ought to run down the class, granting that the average amount of effort is being given, and revealing where there has been a sharp deviation from that line either up or down. They go into the section rooms and mark cadets' work, compare the marks with the instructors' afterwards, and discuss these marks. In every way possible we attempt to get uniformity of grading. We don't succeed in it completely, I know, but we succeed far enough so that to my certain knowledge the students themselves are satisfied.

The last objection (again one which cannot be overcome) is the enormous amount of clerical work involved in the carrying out of this system. The averages of all the cadets in all the subjects under instruction are computed once every two weeks at least, and in many departments once

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every week. These averages are entered upon individual report cards, and those cards laid out where the head of the department can go over them and determine whether a man is out of line or not, and order the necessary correction. If that burden of clerical labor fell upon one or two officers, it would, it is true, be overwhelming. As it is, however, it is distributed among 175 different officers of instruction at the Academy, and it becomes a regular part of the official routine. The officers rapidly get accustomed to doing this figuring, to accepting it as a part of the bi-weekly effort or weekly effort, and think nothing more about it. At any rate, however much of a burden it is, it is a burden which we are willing to continue in our belief that the system as a whole is advantageous.

Before I close, I want to remind you once more that the conditions at West Point are unique for the operation of this system. I appreciate that. It is probable that only in large required courses or in courses which are largely elected, and in which schedules permit recitations at the same periods, in other institutions can this system be adopted. It is advantageous as we have found it, and we shall probably continue it for many years to come.

XIII

THE CONTRIBUTION OF THE LIBRARY TO EFFECTIVE TEACHING

SILAS EVANS

The place of the library is prescribed by the purpose of the college. It might well be defined as the central laboratory of culture, an intellectual community center for students and faculty. Too often we are obsessed in our college purpose by institutional and administrative chores. The president of a college or a superintendent of public instruction is always being tempted to become something of a sublimated janitor. We make wide our academic phylacteries and miss the weightier things of the spirit. An inspired Bible for college administrators would have this text bulk large: Beware of the leaven of academic Phariseeism, which is the leaven of numbers, buildings and multiplied courses.

The library, which enshrines the culture of the ages, yields its place in the program of expense to administration building, commons, stadium, campus areas, and to luxurious dormitories with furnishings more elegant than half the students will, or should, possess for many years, until they have won the right to them. The library itself is too prominently a matter of building with a cost disproportionate to service and books—a real white elephant. A good library building has artistic value, but much of the cost would often better be given to books and service if the educational purpose is dominant. The library is too often featured under administrative rather than instructional lines, and librarians are thought of as clerks, and collection of books more important than circulation of books, hoarding than spending. One of the most common fallacies that subtly plays on college authorities is that a large building or a large number of books makes good readers. The fallacy could be

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seen if applied to the intellect of a farmer when he assumes to believe that big cows must come out of big barns. We know of course that a good cow must have good breeding and good bran, and only the amount that one cow can absorb is needed for efficiency.

The heart of the college is very definitely the inner life of the student, and this is served principally not by the multitude of buildings around about his body, but by the impartation of come-to-stay impulses to his soul. The library is the container of the three great factors of education—the teacher, the student and the book. It would be more to the point to speak of the library college than of the college library. The text-book, the lecture, the recitation, lack the power and the winsomeness of the wise teacher with his pupils and books.

We may hear on any campus what is frequently heard at one of our universities after a large group of students complete their course in Shakespeare; slamming the book and throwing it aside, the pupil says, "Well, I am through with Shakespeare." The accent and action convey the further implication, "forever, and thank God." It were better for that particular student if Shakespeare had never been born. In fact he never took Shakespeare, for Shakespeare never took hold of him.

A library is an orderly group of books kept in lively and intelligent service. The number of volumes as the simple and stupid proof of efficiency is as sensible educationally as to consider the number of students in a college a simple test of its general educational efficiency. The kind of books, their circulation and appropriation, enter vitally into the test. In my own classes for undergraduates, in the interest of efficiency which my experience has very well proven, I do not wish my students grazing in wide pastures of the vast library. I prefer to put on the reserve shelf ten or fifteen books with duplicates, which are very expressly the effective library for the purpose of my class at that time.

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I can do little with pupils in the stupor of bibliographical dyspepsia. Dead, uncirculating books though properly counted if of any use, must be decidedly discounted for educational purposes. The professor must often create the thirst and lead the students to the book trough.

Why in the name of efficiency need we subscribe for nearly all magazines and have but one copy of the leading and most read magazines? Or why only one copy of the richest and most thought-provoking books? Why so much money spent on book storage rather than on book usage?

The library is essentially a school; the librarian is a leading teacher, and every true teacher must be something of a service librarian, requiring in the teacher's case no technique but the love and knowledge of a limited number of books which he imparts to his pupils. No college library however large is efficient which is not an instrument of power and influence to the whole teaching staff and student body. The library is as large as the number of good books used per student. The physics department has the proper basis for library efficiency in application of the law of momentum, which might be expressed something like this: the working basis of books is as half the mass times the square of the velocity, or circulation. Doubtless the unused cells in the brain have a certain potential value and utilitarian function in filling out a rounded head, but these unused cells could hardly be the basis of standardization for thought efficiency; they become so in use. The Archbishop Parker Library in Corpus Christi College, Cambridge, by the conditions of bequest is opened only by consent in the presence of three persons with separate keys to three locks, and if ever twelve volumes are lost, the library passes to the possession of another college. For college administration and educational efficiency this is not a library. It is more or less of a nuisance, or possibly a museum.

Rambling and browsing about among a number of books has an important place in the student life. Students often

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profit by it. Our stacks should be accessible. The free-trade policy is more effective than the protective policy with library books. Many will be lost, and some stolen. Much depends here upon the teacher and student spirit, and I assume that no service-desk technique will prevent all smuggling. We cannot afford to punish the larger body for the sins of the few. We can better afford, after exercising every caution, to buy more books.

May I submit this query: How much real loss in cultural efficiency would your college experience if from your library one-third of the books carefully eliminated were sold to the junk man, and the money and space utilized for the better service of the remaining two-thirds?

We but scratch the surface when we consider our library duty well done in such arrangements as freshman groups being taught the art of finding books, or in having proper cataloguing and accessioning, or in ordering all the latest or rarest or best books for reference or for current use. The great problem is the matter of creating good reading habits.

The library is often classified in terms of a building, and its budget classed with administration. I have dreamed—and what college president does not dream in the hardships of Egypt, trying to make bricks without straw! My dream is a college of three buildings (the housing and the eating and a small office room for administration, tucked away somewhere, not being essentially the college). The three buildings are chapel, library and science hall. In a college of 500 students the library would cost \$200,000, carrying an endowment of \$800,000 for maintenance, service and purchasing of books. The library would be a rotunda surrounded by recitation stalls incorporated in the library purpose, professors having their offices accessible to both their recitation rooms and the library, the recitation rooms to be used at odd moments for study, conference, and to contain a few vital books which the professor is putting into im-

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mediate and practical use. Something like this would make the library an organic teaching unit.

The most effective library of my observation is one unembarrassed by a library building, using but one room in the main administration building of the State Teachers College at Kirksville, Missouri. A man of rare vision, convinced that the teaching profession is the most important in the world, and suspecting that many teachers cease their education when they begin teaching, financed a plan of donating up-to-date books and engaging a rare book-lover to introduce them.

At first this library ministered only to the college faculty and local teachers, but now its work extends over three counties and includes rural and town teachers. These teachers meet in groups once in two weeks for an evening's reading. A worth-while book is read aloud, and there is just enough discussion to make sure that everyone gets the author's meaning. This book-loving, folk-loving librarian also brings to these meetings a few new and interesting books and gives such information about each book and author as will whet the appetites of the group. If the meeting is held at the library, each reader goes home carrying a book or two to last until the next meeting; if it is in one of the outlying towns, the librarian takes orders and mails the books. Traveling expenses of teachers are paid where they have to go any distance to attend these group meetings.

This work has been going on for six years, steadily increasing its area, number of readers and influence. This year for the first time reading groups have been formed among the college students to encourage the formation of good reading habits. No credit is given for the work, it being its own reward.

This unique library, which started as an experiment, but is now a real going concern, is described by Dr. Winship in the *Journal of Education* of December 27, 1926.

If one wants to create in the student body the reading habit, which habit defines the character of an educated man,

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it requires no great technique or psychological experiments to determine the first essential step, namely, give opportunity for students to read for pleasure and interest, and expect big results.

I have personally conducted an experiment which is quite young but has proven gratifyingly successful. In 1926 I announced a Book course, meeting at a most inconvenient hour, and placing such restrictions upon it as would attract only the most purposeful. There were only ten students taking the course in the fall term. About thirty or forty books, primarily in biography, were placed for reading and a large freedom was given in reference to the choice of books. We met two hours a week, and two hours of credit were given for the course. The class read an average of nine books each in the twelve weeks of the quarter. The hour in class was used in introducing a certain character as presented through a standard book. Such books as the following were read: *Education of Henry Adams*, *The Public Papers of Woodrow Wilson*, *From Immigrant to Inventor*, *Life of Pasteur*, *Plato and Platonism*, *Jefferson and Hamilton*. There was no attempt at book reviews. There is little interest in hearing an ordinary, colorless résumé of a book. The aim was always a vital and personal reaction to the truth which the book is somewhat instrumental in embodying.

In the second term, the course was held at the same unattractive hour with even more strenuous requirements. The class grew from ten in the first quarter to sixty in the second quarter. Six departments are co-operating, each department holding conferences with its own students taking the general Books course. For example, students holding seminar conferences with the professor of history will make a special study with him of Spengler's *Decline of the West*, in addition to attending the Books course twice a week, where some vital book is presented each time. In a similar way the group in philosophy

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will study Durant's *Story of Philosophy*. The literature department will study some phase of the drama. Books in all these lines are placed on reserve shelf with liberal library provision for use, and except for the special or departmental interest, large liberty is given in the choice of books. The townspeople and local teachers are invited to audit the course, and many are doing so.

In the course there are possibilities for developing honors courses. From a class of 150 freshmen, which I meet twice a week, I have selected twelve on grounds of scholarship and intelligence tests who have been invited, even in their freshman year, to audit this Books course. They will be excused from the freshman Bible class and will meet me in seminar conference for a two-hour period every two weeks in a study of lives of Jesus. It has become clear to the students in this particular course that any inquiry about the credits on the basis of grades, or amount of reading required, would indicate that the inquirer is not qualified to take the course.

Based on the experience of the first term, I am personally satisfied that the cultural efficiency of this Books course is easily double that of the average college curriculum course. In spite of the growing size of our libraries, it is the tendency of education, with its formal and standardized requirements, prerequisites and loaded curricula, to avoid the use of books as aids to thinking; and reflection through general reading is not a greatly practiced art. Put your freshman or even your senior to any well approved test on this matter of reading and the conclusion with your school, as with others, will be found to be quite discouraging. Many students are surprised that they should be expected to read more than the required amount—the chore of collateral reading. Much of the vocational appeal tends to the neglect of books except for very narrow purposes. The library has more potency for revision, if not revolution, in method and approach to our general courses of study than the laboratory in the past had in the method of science.

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The library is the great common denominator of the college, the real democracy where all meet together to gratify their intellectual curiosity. It is a world in epitome to be exploited for the scholar's enrichment, to be the generating station for permanent life interests, to develop an individuality and personality in students, to furnish cultural preparedness for the leisure which modern industry will afford, and is the only real orientation course. The possibility of coordinating the library to all the purposes of the college has been hardly recognized. Credits, whatever they can be made to mean, will not be forever a ban to giving an earnest student a chance with books. We will develop fewer recitations, more conferences and more reading. In some way time spent with books rightly used will be evaluated, taking over in some form the units given to other things comparatively inconsequential for education, such as bands, physical education, R. O. T. C., glee clubs.

The library is a key for much of our hoped-for simplification of courses. We shall find a way to correlate and coordinate and unify around the library. English composition is like a prayer meeting in that we do not know what to do with it, nor do we know what to do without it. We shall some day have English coaches and trainers in the field of books, with the technical and formal imparted indirectly and therefore more effectively. How much more effective may directed reading of books be than assigned reading of books!

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FIFTH PART

THE PROMOTION OF SCHOLARSHIP

Chapter

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Robert C. Brooks

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XIV

HONORS COURSES AT SWARTHMORE COLLEGE

ROBERT C. BROOKS

The Swarthmore experiment with honors courses is now—January, 1926—in its fourth year and there are enrolled in honors groups one-fourth of the present membership of the junior and senior classes. The most promising students selected at the end of the sophomore year are placed in groups of five or six with two professors for each group. They are freed from ordinary class work and examinations. They do two years' reading in a well defined field, closely interrelated subjects forming that field. In the groups which I am now teaching the subjects are philosophy, politics, economics, and history. They are required also to present a reading knowledge in two languages. The final examinations which come at the end of the two years' reading are conducted by outside examiners, that is, by professors not connected with Swarthmore College. The latter assign from eight to ten three-hour written papers, and afterwards, meeting at Swarthmore, conduct a public oral examination of the honors seniors, and they alone fix the grade of honors—first, second and third.

You will understand, of course, that in talking about student scholarship, I am attempting to describe the experiences of others and may fail in part. In dealing with faculty scholarship, I am describing largely my own experience and the experience of my colleagues and therefore am less likely to go astray.

Student Scholarship

To begin with student scholarship, it may be said that the honors plan establishes a very close relationship both

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physical and moral between the professors and members of their groups. If I may advert to the *mot* about Mark Hopkins and the ideal college, we of Swarthmore may be said to have gone beyond it in that we have abolished even the log which was included, unnecessarily, in that famous formula. We professors sit in ordinary chairs in a small room among our students, being thus physically close to them and undistinguished from them. While of course teachers remain teachers and students remain students, I think a great deal is gained by that closeness of approach, just as in juvenile courts the abolition of the bench and the imposing machinery of the law contributed much to the success of those courts in dealing with parents and children.

Further, the matter of outside examiners seems to me of very great importance. For the ordinary student the professor is not only teacher but also judge, jury and executioner, with the power to administer conditions and "flunks," even the power of dismissal in his hands. Under the Swarthmore plan, with outside examiners, the teacher is a teacher or tutor only. Moreover, it is important to notice that under this plan the final examinations test not only the work of the students who are under fire from the outside; they test also the efficiency of the teachers who have been dealing with those students.

Permit me also to refer briefly to the changed conditions under which students work. They are not given homeopathic doses—twenty or thirty pages in this, that or the other text-book. They are assigned whole books at a time to deal with. In a meeting held just before I came away, for instance, a paper was read on British parties, based upon seven or eight chapters in President Lowell's *Government of England*. The great advantage of that book is, first, that it is a classic, and, second, that it is out of date, just as Bryce's *American Commonwealth*, which we also read, is a classic and out of date. Consequently every paper based on any reading assignment in either of these

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must be brought down to date by the student. In the case of the particular paper referred to above, the student was told to read also Paul Blanshard's book on the *British Labor Party* and to find for himself all the collateral reading in blue books and magazines available at the library. Thus the paper prepared upon the subject would represent from three to four weeks' work, three hours a week of ordinary classroom time. By assignments of similar scope the habit of dealing with books as a whole is cultivated in honors work.

Each week the honors student writes one paper. It must be written in good English. It must be read aloud and well. With the heavy assignments given him he is forced to distinguish between details and general principles. The juniors beginning honors work always lose themselves at first in details and write long papers. In a very short time (I think it is due more to the example of the senior papers which they listen to than the admonitions and criticisms of professors) they find themselves able to subordinate details and to deal with the broader principles involved. They are forced constantly to make comparisons—in political science, for instance, between English and American constitutional methods. They are forced to draw conclusions, and it is indeed a dull hour in an honors group that does not start some hare of discussion which is vigorously pursued there and which, as I have learned, is frequently pursued in the corridors of the dormitories afterwards, the chase being taken up by the ordinary undergraduates who hear the honors students discussing these fascinating and elusive topics.

Papers are criticized as soon as read, first by the students who are always given the first chance at this, then by the professors. We are continually on the lookout for generalizations that are too sweeping, for rhetoric that is too fine, for vague, ambiguous, question-begging words or phrases like "higher," "lower," "more democratic," "less

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democratic" and our old friend, "to a certain extent." Unusual words are held up not only as regards pronunciation but also as regards meaning. I regret to note the discovery that even professors differ with regard to pronunciation. It is indeed fortunate for us that the dictionary remains final upon such points.

The meaning of words, that is of unusual words, of words perhaps too learned for the context, must be given by the student the moment they are pronounced. That has become so common a feature of honors work that it results occasionally in discomfiture to the professor. For instance, I had this year one student whose choice of language was rather too magnificent and had held him up repeatedly on words, nearly always scoring a triumph. But in a paper which he read a short time ago the word "apocryphal" occurred in a rather unusual sense. Of course he was instantly stopped and asked to define apocryphal. That time he was ready for me. Parrot-like he declaimed: "The word 'apocryphal' is used in four meanings," following which he reeled off each of the four at length and in precise detail. "In the present instance," he concluded, "I am using the word in the third of these meanings." Naturally the point was not lost on the other members of the group, neither on my colleagues nor on the students; least of all on myself. Nevertheless, I was quite willing thus to be embalmed in the liquid amber of his remarks because I saw that he had learned the lesson of accuracy in the use of words which frequent interruptions were designed to teach.

Now with regard to the attitude of the students themselves, perhaps the most striking thing is this: they welcome new work, new methods of work. One of my cherished recollections (not of Swarthmore) is that of a colleague, a very distinguished man, who was frequently unable to meet his classes. I used to pass his room in the corridor on the way to my own and occasionally noted at the beginning of the hour a little group of students before the door on which the welcome notice of indisposition or of some

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important engagement was posted. In the most light-hearted manner they always danced a jig because the professor was not to be there that day. It was a fairly humorous situation which, no doubt, is frequently duplicated. Perhaps it is a somewhat tragic situation also, that the ordinary undergraduate should consider the absence of a professor as an advantage to himself. Now the contrasting fact with regard to honors students is that if you suggest other work, other reading, other methods, they welcome it and very frequently they come in with suggestions of their own.

A moment ago I said that our honors examinations are conducted by outside examiners. These examinations are regarded with considerable apprehension, particularly as the two-year term approaches an end. A short time ago the suggestion was made that we, the professors at Swarthmore, should stage a rehearsal examination, that we should sit behind a table, hale honors students before us, and orally catechize them as a means of preparing them for the final examination. It was welcomed by the honors groups almost with applause.

Two seniors came to me last week with a plan of their own. They had been studying philosophy, politics, economics, history for two years. For their examination they had to cover the period from the Renaissance to the present time. What they proposed was to draw up a conspectus in four columns: one labeled with the title of each of these subjects, bringing it down from century to century with all the names, all the books, all the events, all the principles, all the systems in that period of history, noting all the interrelations they could discover; and they wanted to know if I would help. Naturally, I was delighted and told them that I would give any assistance possible in my own column and would call in my colleagues to assist in the other three.

One feature of honors work is that not only the students but sometimes the professors disagree, and when we disagree we talk it out, the students joining in and taking

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sides. They enjoy it. They enjoy it more than anything else that can occur in an honors group. In this connection my attention was called by one of my colleagues a few days ago to a passage in the *Education of Henry Adams*, discussing his experience at Harvard University, which he perversely regarded as a failure, and making certain suggestions based upon that experience.

Not one of Henry Adams' many devices to stimulate the intellectual reaction of the students' minds satisfied either him or the students. For himself he was clear that the fault lay in the system which could lead only to inertia. His mind required conflict, competition, contradiction, even more than that of the student. He would have seated a rival assistant professor opposite him, whose business should be strictly limited to expressing opposite views. Nothing short of this would ever interest either the professor or the student, but of all university freaks no irregularity shocked the intellectual atmosphere so much as contradiction or competition between teachers. In that respect the thirteenth century university system was worth the whole teaching of the modern school.

I do not mean to say that all the meetings of the Swarthmore groups are thirteenth century disputations by any means. On the contrary, I am more frequently surprised by agreements than by disagreements with my colleagues, agreements indeed with some whom I had suspected of heresy. A few years ago one of our students, a socialist, wrote a paper on certain of the works of Herbert Spencer. Naturally she cut Spencer's individualism to pieces. Having been brought up on his *Sociology* myself, I took notes vigorously while the slaughter was in progress. As soon as the paper was completed, I assailed this socialist criticism of Spencer with a certain savagery perhaps. What was my surprise when I had finished that my colleague, the professor of philosophy, who certainly leans rather toward collectivism, took up the cudgels in behalf of Herbert Spencer's ethics in much the same way that I had defended his sociology. I am not so sure that we converted the young person although we had a very lively discussion with her, but

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the great surprise of finding that my colleague agreed with me on Herbert Spencer was the thing which made the occasion memorable to me.

Faculty Scholarship

Turning now to faculty scholarship, my second topic, I find that I need a word broader even than "scholarship." That the latter has been stimulated markedly by honors work will appear, I trust, from some of the things which have been said about our students. But in addition, the general effect of honors work at Swarthmore College has been to break down very largely interdepartmental barriers. I can very well remember my own Ph.D. epoch, now somewhat remote in the past, when thanks to the provisions of the catalogue with regard to graduate study, I was presumed to have a knowledge of one major and two minors, the major being political science and the minors, economics and philosophy. In the more than a quarter of a century that has elapsed since then, my knowledge of these minors had become increasingly vague and doubtful. Even in a small college there is a degree of specialization, not so great as that of the university of course, but still considerable. In the intervening years I had perhaps learned more of political science, but certainly knew much less of philosophy and economics. But during the past four years I have been sitting in from three to five hours a week with professors of history, professors of economics, professors of philosophy. I honestly believe that I could attempt that examination for the doctor's degree in my minors again; at least I feel that I have absorbed as much as the honors students in these cognate fields. Moreover, I find myself using in my own teaching bits of history, bits of philosophy, which if I ever knew them had long vanished from my memory, all recently acquired in honors groups. I am speaking now of my teaching in the ordinary undergraduate classes.

A year or so ago I went to President Aydelotte with a very forceful plea, at least I tried to make it as forceful

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as possible, for an assistant professor, *not* in political science. At the time I needed two assistant professors in political science, but the particular request I made to him was for an assistant professor in history. Of course I was rather struck with the incongruity of my position. I told him that I never expected to appear before him with a plea for the appointment of an instructor in any department except my own and certainly I had never done so before. But I was compelled to do so by the knowledge that we needed at that time an additional professor in history far more than we needed an additional professor in political science.

By association in honors groups professors of different departments come to know something more than the social manner of their colleagues as displayed at occasional dinners and teas, we come to know much more even than the faculty-meeting manners of our colleagues. We learn each other's teaching ability, command of subjects, pursuit of special topics, and methods of research—in short, something of the men themselves in their most intimate professional interests. I am convinced that that knowledge, that closeness of relationship and the consequent breaking down of the jealous, almost feudal, barriers between departments are, at least from the point of view of faculty as distinguished from student education, the most valuable results of the plan.

In conclusion, I will not say that we have attained the ideal so eloquently set forth by Bishop Lowth with regard to Oxford. Heaven is not at hand at Swarthmore, but under the honors system at least we are appreciably closer to "the agreeable and improving commerce of gentlemen and scholars in a society where emulation without envy, ambition without jealousy, contention without animosity incite industry and awaken scholarship; where a liberal pursuit of knowledge and a genuine freedom of thought are raised, encouraged, and pushed forward by example, by commendation, and by authority."

XV

THE COMPREHENSIVE EXAMINATION

JOHN S. P. TATLOCK

Most college professors are aware of the defects or limitations of our present system of education which are supposed to be met by the comprehensive final examination; the patchiness of our undergraduate education even within the so-called major field, the lack of independence and initiative which the system of merely taking courses is apt to encourage, and the lack of permanent grasp, which means that a student is not required to retain a knowledge of what he has learned after the examination in a course is over. A suitable motto for many of our undergraduates would be that of St. Paul, "Forgetting those things that are behind, I press (or possibly stroll) on toward those that are before."

We may assume also an acquaintance with the two principal systems at present in vogue which employ the final examination, the so-called honors system (or independent-study plan, as it is not unwisely called in Stanford University) and the system of general examinations for all. Well-known, also, are President Aydelotte's report printed by the National Research Council in 1924 on honors courses, and Professor R. B. Perry's report on tutors, in the *Bulletin* of the American Association of University Professors, November, 1924; the matter of tutoring and of the general final examination has been treated also in the *Bulletin* of that Association for December, 1924.

The so-called honors course applies to relatively few students, of high rank, who, as a rule, if not always, volunteer for the purpose. The students are more or less freed from the regular curriculum, and are usually guided in their work by the older teachers.

The other system is the general comprehensive final examination for all students in their major study or field of

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concentration. This is especially, but not wholly, employed in the humanities. It is superimposed upon the regular curriculum, sometimes (for the abler man) with a certain amount of reduction of it and freedom from routine duties. The tutors are sometimes older men, but usually are somewhat younger teachers who are frequently especially appointed for this position.

Essential to both systems is a final examination on the major study. The examination is not an end in itself, although many people will regard it as a valuable discipline. (As a rule I think those who object to examinations are not the best students, and I am not sure that they are the best among other groups.) Some examination is presupposed by independent, correlated study. The examinations are partly on facts, admitting much choice necessarily in the facts which the students are expected to have at their command. They usually test also intellectual digestion, the ability to apply and rationalize from the facts that students know. They test intellectual ability, aside from the mere matter of memory.

In some of these systems involving the general final examination for all students the examination is the main thing, with very little tutoring. Far be it from me to imply that the examination is useless, even with little tutoring, and even if merely based upon facts, for the preparation for this examination implies some coördination of what the student knows, filling in the gaps between what he has learned in his various courses, viewing the subject as a whole. It also implies some independence, and it is a protest against that point of view so common among students, that the only way to learn a thing is to take a course in it; one of the most unfortunate attitudes of mind that one can imagine, because it means that when they have stopped taking courses they have stopped learning. If a student thinks when he takes his A.B. degree that he has finished his education, he has missed some of the things in college education which he most needs to gain.

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All agree that with the final-examination system some direction is usually a necessary corollary. Everywhere some help is available if it is asked for. The average student cannot be expected to realize what the important gaps in his knowledge are. To come up to a subject from below with a mole's eye view of it is not the same as having a bird's-eye view of it. Every teacher feels there is a lack of sense of proportion on the part of the average student, an inability to discriminate between what is important and essential and what is not. Further, if the student is left to himself, with no one to whom he is free to go for prolonged discussion, the examination will have to be fairly easy, for a large proportion of students cannot fairly be allowed to fail. Again, tactful direction means the development of initiative and courage, although at first this may seem a paradox. Finally, we wish to eliminate cramming. A student who is left entirely to himself is very likely to leave his work for the examination till toward the end. The examination at the end of the senior year will seem at the beginning of the junior year a far-off, perhaps diabolical, event which he won't think about for a year or so yet. As a matter of fact, at Harvard, as a result of the combination of tutoring with the final examination system, a reliance on cramming has been pretty nearly eliminated, or so I am informed by those who ought to know. At Harvard, where the system has been tried on the most elaborate scale and for the longest time, the feeling of the students about the importance of the tutoring element is shown by the fact that in 1922 the students themselves through the Student Council petitioned for the addition of tutors for those who concentrate in modern languages. The final examination had been held for some time in those departments and the students felt at sea.

Therefore *de facto* it is practically essential to both systems that tutors be used, and here comes the chief second difference between the two systems. The general feeling

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seems to be that the honors students require older and more experienced tutors, though it is doubtful if there is any cogent and invariable reason for this view. With the general final examination for all, a very large number of tutors is necessary and they are apt to be chosen, although not invariably, from among younger men.

Certain dangers in both of these systems should not be entirely disregarded. One is the effect on the courses which some think is observable; a dubious effect, for example, on the *morale* of courses under the honors system by the attendance of students who assume no responsibility for them, and have a somewhat discouraging effect upon the others. Further, under the system at Harvard, in the last month or two of the year the attendance falls off very largely in some courses. Perhaps the seniors are not exactly cramming. We may say they are intensively filling in their neglected gaps. I have reason to think also that students are less inclined to elect courses which do not seem an essential link in the knowledge of their major subject. Perhaps they take such courses less seriously when they are elected. The ill effect on courses which does exist is to be reckoned with as a real evil. Anything which interferes with the efficiency of a course in which an expert presents a subject to those who are interested is an evil. At the same time one must not lose sight of the fact that courses are made for students and not students for courses.

The other evil is the effect of both systems on the scholarly productiveness of our universities. The development of either of these systems of courses tends to reduce still further the opportunities of faculty men for adding to knowledge. That is a very great danger which must be reckoned with. But inasmuch as the present purpose is positive rather than negative, we must regretfully dismiss that particular point.

As to the relative advantages of the two systems: the general examination for all has certain advantages over the

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honors course. Students enter upon the honors courses voluntarily, but the ablest students, especially in the East, are by no means sure to volunteer. Some college students still despise what used to be called "the grind." Many able students see little bearing of a general education on their life work, and they prefer so-called "activities." Some able students are not yet aroused out of their laziness. The honors course is likely to attract especially the quietly studious, although some of the more all-round type also. In the men's colleges, especially in the East, I should think this is a legitimate criticism.

On the other hand, the general examination for all is more of an undertaking for the institution. It is exceedingly expensive and very exacting where it is fully developed. This is due in part to the really very elaborate examinations and the very large number of papers to be read; in the Division of History, Government and Economics, for example, at Harvard, two professors are relieved from all their teaching, if they wish, for the second half-year, in order to devote themselves to the examinations. The tutors also make the system very expensive because numerous tutors are necessary. It is enough to say that in the year '23-24, at Harvard, the cost in the Division of History, Government and Economics directly chargeable to the final-examination system and the tutors was \$58,448. It is obvious that this cost is prohibitive except in an institution of large resources or one with generous and public-spirited alumni, which perhaps amounts to somewhat the same thing.

The honors or independent-study system then has the advantage of being a possibility in any institution. The system of general examinations for all has the advantage of spreading its benefits among all students, especially the able but as yet scholastically unambitious, instead of merely those who are both able and already ambitious.

Now seen at close hand from the educational point of view of the faculty and really of the students, the chief

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element of both systems is not the examination but the tutorial element. As seen in its habit as it lives, it is a system of teaching and a motive for study. As often happens, that which in some institutions, at least, was an afterthought and a corollary has become the main thing. With the hope of not treading upon others' territory, in the remainder of this paper we shall consider the tutoring system, chiefly at Harvard, as it works in connection with the general final examination.

One question is as to the relation of the tutoring to the older system of teaching—lectures and recitations. Some enthusiastic tutors are for reducing this older element; courses interfere with the amount of the students' time at *their* disposal. If this is a legitimate criticism (which may be doubted), here is an advantage of the honors or independent-study system. The chairman of the tutors in history, etc., has suggested that only three courses shall be required in the junior year and two in the senior, and in fact not long ago the faculty voted to permit candidates for distinction to reduce their courses to three for each of these years. A recent graduate, writing in *The Harvard Alumni Bulletin* late in 1924 (between October, 1924, and October, 1925, it published a number of articles on the subject), opines that the tutor's work should "hold the center of the stage." But all agree that the course-system is not to be abandoned, and few think even that it should be relegated to the second place. No one man, not even a clever young man, knows everything, and there is no substitute for the expert. The able and even the average undergraduate needs him. Further, a good course is a systematic survey; the essence of the tutoring is that it is somewhat spontaneous and beneficially desultory. As one tutor says, college may be ideally a place for teaching *men* to think, but we must give *boys* something to think about.

It is interesting to inquire to what kind of students the tutors devote most time, the able or the ill-prepared or the

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laggard. Some tutors distinctly favor the abler students. But in any case the alert, industrious student needs little time; an *obiter dictum*, a hint, a book mentioned, the bringing together of two ideas with an affinity for each other, will send him off in a flash. In this matter tutors will differ. One tutor in French spends most of his time on those who have difficulties, and censures those who think they should devote themselves most to the brilliant, and stimulate them toward graduate work and an academic career. (Yet, considering the need in our profession for large numbers of men of great ability, the sort of men who would succeed in other callings as well, can we ignore the needs of its future?) But he thinks it not true that the ablest have least attention. Another avows every sympathy with the dull student, and feels it his duty to give him a lift over the stile. Another, who can speak with especial authority, feels that the tutor is not expected to coach the dull, to breed specialists nor to labor long with a colorless man who is simply not interested; rather, to help the non-specialist by showing the bearing of his major study on general culture, and to stimulate everyone to read more and better books and periodicals. Another feels he does best with the middle group, those whose mental potentialities may become actualities. This point is really fundamental to the tutorial idea. Another tutor believes "the man who profits most is quite as likely to be a third or fourth group man as a first or second. Most of the tutors, I think, have been struck by the fact that the men who never fall below A in their courses are not invariably the men who are living, or can live, the good life. The tutorial method is offering encouragement to the sort of man who makes E in Greek because he detests the instructor, but who reads the English poets through because he is interested in tracing Ben Jonson's influence as a writer of odes. (I am speaking of one of my own students.)" Here we are close to the characteristic virtue of the honors system. In re-

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gard to the whole question who should receive most attention, we should decide not yet, if ever. There is a medieval epigram which I have always rather fancied,

Send the wyse and seye no thyng.

The tutors constantly confer with each other, and will work out principles. As things actually are, the total product of my observations and inquiries is that those students get most attention who are most appreciative and responsive, those who desire it most.

Now what of actual results? I find no difference of opinion as to essentials. At Harvard the system has raised the quantity and quality of undergraduate work, has roused many from the flowery beds of ease, has made them not only read but think and question and reason. The whole system has made the actual requirements for the degree greater. I have been irresistibly struck, on returning to my Alma Mater after twenty-two years, with the improved standards not only for graduates but also for undergraduates. This may not be without interest to those who are pessimistic about our college education. The recent graduate, whose article in the *Harvard Alumni Bulletin* for the 4th December, 1924, I referred to earlier, says that a large proportion of undergraduates are more interested in the curriculum and are getting more out of it as a result chiefly of the general examination and tutorial system, and that the large majority of undergraduates who have had to do with the system would agree. This is quoted as a specimen of well-informed and disinterested judgment on the part of those who are really in an ideal position for exercising judgment, those who have been out of college long enough to have gained some perspective and not so long as to have lost the sharpness of their impressions. One energetic tutor gives an example of what is accomplished: one of his sophomores during two months and a half read outside of his regular class work and discussed with his tutor thirteen plays, two long poems, and one long novel, which must

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have taken him an hour or two every day. This is an example of what may be done to stimulate more or less disinterested and spontaneous mental activity. I will mention one observation of my own. I was asked to attend an evening meeting of students and tutors at the house of one of the latter and take part in the discussion. There were about twenty present. After an intelligent report by a young student there was a well-informed discussion, in which six or eight men took part (in a rather dark room). Afterwards I said to my host that the discussion seemed to me very good, but I regretted that nobody but tutors took part in it. He said with surprise that everybody who spoke except one was a student.

The most interesting facts I know come from one who can speak with especial authority, being a most successful tutor and supervisor of tutors, and assistant dean of the college to boot. He correlates the figures for the tutorial system with those for the A.B. with distinction, for which students volunteer. Those who volunteer are obviously scholastically ambitious, those who get it are obviously the able. It is interesting to see the relation of the tutorial system to actual scholastic ambition and achievement. From 1914-22 the *marked* increase in candidates for distinction took place almost wholly in the departments in which tutoring was especially emphasized. "That this had an effect upon the general intellectual complexion of the college was evident in the increased interest in distinction shown by men in the departments whether there were general examinations and tutors or not. During the year 1922-23, with 1,067 men affected by tutorial instruction, 16.9 per cent. of the three upper classes announced themselves as candidates for the degree with distinction." In the next year this increased to 25.3 per cent. and last year to 34.2 per cent. While some of this increase may be due to certain liberties allowed to candidates for distinction, most of it must be attributed to ambition. It is interest-

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ing further to see the type of man who "goes out" for distinction. We all know the agreeable but not always scholastically ambitious sort of man who is usually elected to class offices. Of the five principal officers of the class of 1924 four received their degrees with distinction. Of the total of twenty-four class officers eleven received some form of distinction at graduation.

In this report, as in an earlier one, I have been chiefly an observer, not even to any great extent a first-hand observer. I should not dream of offering facile *a priori* suggestions for improvement in the system. I still believe that, where it is feasible to adopt it, the system of the general examination for all students specializing in humanities, with the addition of tutors, is the best system; further that it is the most valuable innovation in our undergraduate education since the abolition of the entirely prescribed curriculum.

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SIXTH PART
MUSIC AND THE ARTS OF DESIGN

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XVI

MUSIC IN THE LIBERAL COLLEGE

THOMAS WHITNEY SURETTE

In dealing with this subject it is not my purpose to make out a curriculum for music in a liberal college. A considerable experience in the matter leads me to believe that the best I can do is to lay down general lines of procedure such as will, I think, operate successfully in colleges for men or women or both. Nor do I deal too explicitly with courses and credits, for college practices in this matter vary widely. The subject may be divided into several parts:

1. The study of music itself as an art, as a means of education, and as a means of happiness to human beings.
2. The study of the theory of music as a necessary preparation for teaching it.
3. The study of instrumental playing and singing (with special reference to pianoforte playing).
4. The study of advanced theory (counterpoint, fugue, orchestration, etc.) leading to original composition.
5. Methods of bringing music into the college at large.

Of these five divisions of the subject the first is of importance because it affects a large number of students, is necessary to those taking the more technical studies, and is completely in consonance with the general purposes of a liberal college. The fifth is important because it offers participation in music to all students irrespective of courses of study.

In spite of all appearances to the contrary it is no exaggeration to say that music is the universal art. It is true that people who go through their early lives without contact with it may find themselves at middle age unable to

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enjoy it. But that condition would not exist had they practiced it in childhood. For it is now generally agreed that every child is capable of singing, and that, in itself, inevitably means liking for music. This being so it would seem to be the plain duty of a liberal college to give all its students access to it.

It is no longer necessary to defend music as a means of education, nor is it necessary to argue its value as a means of happiness. As education it is as good as any other subject because it calls upon and increases the resources of the mind, finds its rightful place in the development of man, showing (with the other arts) how important feeling is to action, and how vital beauty is in human life; because it brings contact with some of the great spirits of the world, men of true vision and profound imagination, and because it reveals itself in a medium that is self-contained. For music does not portray or depict man or nature, and it is the only art of which this can be said. It is the image in the mirror; the object reflected is the inner life of man—man in nature long before he had attempted to conquer it; man's hidden racial life, his deepest thoughts, his highest dreams from the earliest times till now. As a means of happiness no one questions it, not even he to whom it makes no appeal, because the evidence is too strong. To be capable of absorbing the logical, inevitable and beautiful sounds of a string quartet or an orchestra playing a great composition is to experience an exaltation of the spirit quite beyond the ordinary experiences of life.

But by the word "music" I do not mean pianoforte playing, harmony, counterpoint, etc. I mean the actual sounds as far as it is possible to produce them; in other words, music studied for its own sake as one would study, for example, the sonnets of Shakespeare or Wordsworth, not for oratory, or scansion or syntax, but for beauty and wisdom.

The liberal college should offer its students opportunities to hear great music, not as subjects on which a professor

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lectures, but as works of art which the teacher helps the student to understand through brief comment here and there. **"A teacher, as I hold, should watch for what his pupil divines of his own accord; but if, trafficking with words of inspiration, he have no gift to catch that inspiration nor power to pass it on, then I say, 'Heaven help him but he has no valid right on earth to be in the business.'*"

Courses of this sort in college are usually called "The Appreciation of Music"; it would be better to call them "Music" as distinguished from those in harmony, counterpoint, etc. (Since what is called "The Appreciation of Music" cannot be taught it is well to avoid the term altogether.) "Folk-song," "The Instrumental Music of the Nineteenth Century," "The Music Dramas of Richard Wagner," etc., would serve as titles. It is necessary to state that this form of teaching loses much of its value when the music is approached by the teacher from its exterior; *i.e.*, when facts are allowed to intrude before the music itself has been assimilated. In great music the actual events in a composer's life have been absorbed into his being and turned into "the helium, or gold of the mind." Too much is made, for example, of Beethoven's deafness; musically he could hear as well after it as before, and there is no more evidence of suffering in his later music than in his earlier. In any event a great man is constantly using his retrospective imagination.

In these courses the music should be played, if possible, from the arrangements for two pianos; failing that, four hands at one piano or the best phonographic reproductions. This should be supplemented by occasional chamber music concerts in the college, and by attendance at orchestra concerts when possible.

These courses in music offered in each year of college life, open to students without prerequisites and covering a wide

* *On the Art of Reading*, Quiller-Couch. This book and its companion, *On the Art of Writing*, should be read by every student of music.

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range of the art, constitute the proper basis of its study. It has been found that some of the best students in these courses are those who have had no training in singing, pianoforte playing, etc. Copies of the music should be available for the students, for when reproducing orchestral or chamber music on the pianoforte, the notation often reveals something of the context that the pianoforte does not reveal. And familiarity with notation is, itself, valuable. If phonographic reproductions are used they should be available to the students outside the class hours.

Along with this study of the music itself the study of its history should be pursued. This should be largely carried on independently by the students. No text-book is really profitable. A properly equipped college library should supply in duplicate a variety of historical and critical books to which the students should have access. The teacher should be a consultant available to groups or even to individuals.

The study of the history of music obviously means the study of other forms of human expression during any given period; of philosophy, art, literature and the general social situation. It means a view of human life in the large. The artistic life of man has never been and never can be a phenomenon isolated from the general life, for there has never been a great art that was not nationally and socially expressive.

It is obvious that such an experience as the foregoing plan provides is the essential basis of any form of music education. One may become technically proficient as a performer and still be uneducated in music because of having pursued too narrow a path, and because music has not been realized in all its human, artistic and historical aspects. It is all too common to find players and singers of considerable technical accomplishment who are woefully lacking in breadth of view and in knowledge of music outside their own particular line.

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Something beyond mere listening should be offered students taking these general courses, and some opportunities should be given to all the other students to come into actual contact with great music. For the person who makes music in some form or other is the one who understands it best. Since a comparatively small number are able to play instruments it is obvious that singing is the best way to bring this about. In a large college informal singing must be carried on in small groups, but in a small college opportunities should be offered to all students (and to the faculty also) to sing together. Evenings may be set apart for the gathering of all these in a suitable room, where by means of simple unison music (folk-songs) a beginning may be made. It will soon be found possible to use part music, for the reading of it presents no great difficulties. At these meetings students sufficiently proficient play for the others; sometimes friends come to assist and a small orchestra may be formed. These meetings have been of the greatest value to the music life of some colleges. All this is for the experience of great music rather than for perfection of performance.

A glee club of selected voices managed by its members is an important element in college music. The value of such an organization not only to those who sing in it, but to the college at large, and even to the community at large, has been amply demonstrated by Dr. Davison at Harvard. A college orchestra presents a more difficult problem because of the amount of time needed for practice before reasonable proficiency can be acquired. It is interesting to observe in this connection how large a place is now occupied in public high school music by orchestras of students.

Finally, it should be said that the best music is none too good for college students whether they be music students or not. This statement will be a commonplace to any one who understands what music really is. The answer it finds in the hearts, souls, and minds of young people is a *corre-*

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spondence between it and them. The sense of beauty in music is inherent in us as a racial survival.

Among the music students in a liberal college there are certain to be some who will train for teaching. For this career there are several essentials: first, adequate training of the ear and eye. This should be a prerequisite on entering college, for the college should not be expected to offer subjects that belong in the public school. Our schools teach music to children for a period of from ten to twelve years, and that is ample time to supply good ear training. Some schools teach harmony and some colleges offer it as an entrance subject. When the schools are prepared to send to the colleges students with properly trained ears and eyes it will be time enough to talk about harmony. Second, such an acquaintance with great music as the courses first outlined here provide, supplemented by many concerts and much private study of scores. Third, capacity to play the pianoforte reasonably well (with which I deal in another section). Fourth, a more complete knowledge of the structure of music, a competent knowledge of harmony especially in relation to the pianoforte, and a similar knowledge of the office and purposes of counterpoint as it is displayed in the music of Palestrina, Bach, Mozart, Beethoven, Brahms, and later composers. Fifth, a knowledge of, and feeling for style.

The great difficulty at present in the teaching of harmony in colleges is that the essential prerequisites are not demanded. They are: (1) A capacity to hear what is written without recourse to the piano, and (2) some facility in piano playing. The first is essential, for otherwise the student must either turn to the piano to hear every chord he writes or put down his notation mathematically. The second is essential because he must play many examples of harmony to be found in the works of the great masters. Some colleges offer a preliminary course in ear training. This is a backward step.

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In general education the teacher needs a knowledge of English literature beyond its mere mechanics and beyond the usual required English in the average college curriculum. He should study literature (especially poetry) as an art. He should study the philosophy of esthetics; and he should study science to give him accurate thinking powers and a passion for truth. He should also have a reading knowledge of French and German. The teacher should, therefore, begin to specialize as early in his college career as possible. Even so, with the present administration of education in our high schools, the student cannot begin his specialization in college early enough. If he has real ability he has been kept back all through his education by the law of averages. He should, therefore, take at least one year of graduate work. This can profitably be devoted to an enrichment of his education (filling out where necessary), to acquiring greater facility in pianoforte playing, and perhaps to some apprentice teaching, in addition to study of education itself.

The inclusion of piano playing in the curriculum of a liberal college should be governed by (1) the qualifications of the student, and (2) the object he has in view. Unless he has been well prepared in his earlier schooling he is likely to meet unsurmountable obstacles. And unless his physical-mental coordination is satisfactory he cannot hope to play the piano successfully no matter how much time he gives to it. There is nothing more dreary than the efforts of such pupils. It should also be remembered that pianoforte playing does not of necessity train the ear or the sensibilities, for the exigencies of technique often occupy the greater part of the attention of the student, as well as of the teacher. But the pianoforte is a general medium for music; by its means, and without much technique, one can become familiar with symphonies, chamber music, operas, etc. Any college student with a modicum of talent willing to forego a good part of the extra-curricular activities of

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his college career and who will use his long holiday for pianoforte study could make some progress in spite of a heavy program in college. These considerations being favorable, there still remains the question of his objective. If he intends to be a teacher (of any form of music whatever) piano playing is a necessity. If the student looks toward original composition, pianoforte playing is also important.

In relation to this part of the subject it is worth noting that the study of pianoforte playing has twice been inaugurated at Oxford University, once under Sir John Stainer and again under Sir Hubert Parry. The failure of these projects was due entirely to the fact that students at Oxford are in residence for eight weeks followed by five weeks' holiday and that these long interruptions made it impossible to carry on the study successfully. Sir Hugh Allen, present Professor of Music at Oxford, told me recently that this arrangement of terms was the only reason why he did not now favor its continuance. But, of course, such study would be permitted to those only who were qualified to carry it on seriously and competently.

Allowing all the advantages of being able to play the piano, it still remains true that, unless it is pursued seriously, competently and with a definite educational objective it has no place as a part of a college curriculum. Under the present arrangement a large number of students select this subject who, under rigid scrutiny, would not be admitted; and their admission turns the college into a sort of conservatory of music, adds immensely to its difficulties both in actual space and in expense, and further complicates the whole matter by making it necessary to inaugurate a large number of courses in theory, "appreciation," etc., so that the pianoforte students may get the essentials of music itself. For credit, so called, is not given for pianoforte playing alone; every student must take theory or "appreciation" along with it.

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For students showing talent for original composition, very few in number, but very important to American music, special provisions are necessary, provisions that most colleges are unable to make. The situation of the college itself is an important factor. It must be in or near a city where orchestral and chamber music can be heard constantly. For the young composer must hear the works of the great masters, past and present, not only for general knowledge and stimulation, but for study of the technique of composition and of orchestration. Under favorable circumstances it should be possible for him occasionally to hear performances of his own works. Such a student should be given every possible freedom and facility. The academic must not clog the artistic. A student of original mind has an extraordinary capacity for absorbing, and needs freedom from too great academic restrictions. The fact that many great creative artists educated themselves does not affect these general conclusions. The world offers man to-day an enormous variety of thought and action and gives him a wide vision, and he must master his own situation in his own world as great men in the past have mastered theirs.

The program, then, for the young composer should include the most thorough training in the technique of his art. He must perfect himself in harmony, counterpoint, canon and fugue and orchestration (Brahms wrote daily exercises in counterpoint with a waste-basket near), and he must study Bach's music as his Bible. There is no escape from the conclusion that many young composers fail finally because of insufficient hard, grinding study in youth. No one can expect to produce music of real consequence who has not mastered counterpoint. The ordinary college classes in harmony and counterpoint are ineffectual. "College harmony" and "college counterpoint" have become by-words. This is not the fault of the instructors but of the system. The young composer is like the young painter or sculptor or writer; he needs to work chiefly alone and to

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have the most competent advice. At no time should the college attempt to classify him and subject him to the inevitable drag of less able classmates.

Perhaps a word should be said, finally, about tests and examinations. In the more technical subjects there is no difficulty about this. In the courses on music itself examinations of a satisfactory kind are now given, notably in Dr. Davison's course on Choral Music (3A) in Harvard, in Smith and in Bryn Mawr (and doubtless in other colleges). The gist of the matter lies in seeing that the major part of the examination consists in listening to music not previously heard by the students and in their written statements as to its identity (determined largely by its style), its form, and other elements in it. The only real test of this particular matter is determined years after the student leaves college, when, if his college music has succeeded with him, you find him attending concerts, and possibly, even, singing in a chorus. And this has taken place already in innumerable instances which have come under my own observation and that of my colleagues. For no test is entirely satisfactory which attempts to measure the effect on students of the study of literature, music and the other arts. The best test in literature would be to ascertain what books, not prescribed, the student reads.

In the foregoing plan I have attempted to avoid (1) too great diffuseness; and (2) too much amateurishness in professional fields; I have proposed (3) a larger view of music itself, (4) as wide opportunities as possible in music for the college as a whole, and (5) such a plan for original composition as shall really free the student and give him the requisite opportunities both for hard study and for free expression of his personality.

XVII

THE STUDY OF ART IN OUR COLLEGES

EDWARD ROBINSON

“What may the college do to create an interest in, and appreciation of, the fine arts through its curricula?” It is with the hope of giving a partial answer to this question that I beg to offer the following suggestions.

To consider our subject comprehensively we should divide the students we have in mind into two classes—those who seek in the college the preparatory training for an active career in some branch of the study of the fine arts, and those to whom it is, or should be, a part of the general education which our colleges and universities aim to provide. To the first of these the value, and the fact that the college is the one place to which they have a right to look for this training, are both so obvious that I need not insist upon them. But I should like to say a word about the careers which are open to students who wish to make a life work of this study, as there may be some who do not appreciate their range and variety, and certainly but a small percentage of the students in our colleges have any idea of the possibilities which are offered to them. First of all is the teaching of the subject. The College Art Association, an admirable organization which has as its purpose “to promote art interests in all divisions of American colleges and universities,” has for a considerable number of years been directing its energies towards the recognition of the study of the fine arts by our college authorities as an essential factor in undergraduate training. It has already accomplished much. But supposing its hopes are fully realized, where are we to find the men and women who are qualified to fill the positions that it demands to have created? Those available to-day are but a mere handful as

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compared with the number needed. Where are the rest to come from—where indeed are we to look for the successors of the present teachers—if college students are not encouraged to look upon this as a career which is not only attractive in itself but will support them as well as other positions of what we may call the college grade?

Second, come the museums. As the museums of art in this country develop and multiply, so does the appreciation by their trustees or founders of the necessity of having trained people to administer them. We have already passed the first period of the museum idea, when force of circumstances compelled those who established a museum to select to take charge of it almost anybody in the community who had the leisure to give to the task, at a salary which nobody could regard as excessive, the chief requirement as to qualifications being “an interest in art.” Nowadays those who are founding museums of art in America, and still more those who have lived through one generation of their development, seek as their directors experts who can guide them in working out the building plans, give them intelligent advice as to purchases and the acceptance of gifts, arrange the exhibits with knowledge and taste, and maintain the proper standard for loan exhibitions. For assistants somewhat the same qualifications are sought, though not in so high a degree. Here is certainly a most inspiring and useful career for those who are qualified to enter upon it, and one in which to-day the demand is far greater than the supply. But let me say that the people who are seeking this kind of help will not be content with superficiality. They demand thorough training for the position they have to offer, and as a rule they are ready to pay a fair remuneration for it. But what are our colleges—with rare exceptions—doing to provide this training?

Third, there is the lecture platform. We all know that within the last few years the work of oral instruction

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within our museums has grown to be an important feature of their organization, that it is rapidly becoming recognized as an essential factor in the relation of the museum to the public, and is bound to remain so. Thus far this instruction has been largely directed towards beginners whether children or adults. But the need for intelligent discussion of topics connected with the history or theory of art for the benefit of those who have already some knowledge of the subject is also making itself felt, not only in museums, but among art societies as well as by the public at large, and here again is the call for the trained expert, the person who can speak with authority.

Fourth, there is the field of criticism. There never was a time when intelligent criticism of art, both past and more especially contemporary, was so sadly needed as at present; for just as the interest in it is growing by leaps and bounds, from one end of the country to the other, and is shared almost equally by artists and the public, so the quality of the criticism that is put forth by our press and periodicals has been steadily deteriorating, until the exceptions to this statement might almost be counted upon the fingers of one hand. By criticism of course I do not mean fault-finding, but I think of the critic in the true sense of the word, as a person who combines with knowledge cultivated taste, a keen sense of analysis, breadth of mind, and a mastery of exact expression, who can tell his readers not only that a given work is good or bad, but why it is so, and this in a manner that shall educate their taste and place the artist in his proper rank among his fellows. In saying this my mind inevitably goes back to the days when McKim, Saint Gaudens and La Farge were in their prime, and Mrs. Schuyler van Rensselaer was writing her criticisms of their work and that of their colleagues, in *The American Architect* and elsewhere. Illuminating these were both to artist and layman. Often I used to hear architects say how helpful her articles were

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to them personally, and often I have wished that her activities had not been turned to other fields, which have profited at the expense of our general education in art. This is the kind of criticism we need more than ever now, but alas, how few are undertaking or fitting themselves to provide it!

Finally, I want to call your attention to one branch of work which offers lucrative employment but is almost wholly neglected by American students, mainly because of their lack of preparation for it, and that is the writing of scientific, authoritative catalogues. Not to speak of public collections, where the need is obvious, private collections have been growing marvelously during the present generation, in quality as well as number. Sooner or later the owners of these want them published in a manner worthy of their importance, that is to say, expense is not regarded in comparison with the desire to have the work done by a first-rate authority, whose word regarding the attribution or the quality of a picture, a sculpture, or a vase, shall be accepted as final, and to make the publication itself, with sumptuous illustrations, a monument of the collection it describes. Is it not a cause of regret, yes of mortification, that such collectors have to seek in Europe the men of the standard they require because our country has done so little to supply them?

These are some of the careers that are open to men and women who are fitted to undertake them. The list might be extended, but I have said enough to show what a lot of opportunities are going to waste simply because we are not yet sufficiently awake to the reality of the need, and our institutions of higher learning have done so little to meet it.

We come now to the main part of our topic, namely, the value of the study of art to students in our colleges and universities who do not mean to follow it as a career, the place it should occupy in the general equipment of a col-

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lege-bred man or woman. Personally I have no hesitation in demanding for it a position among the highest and most essential, as the most liberalizing of the liberal studies, all the more valuable because of its remoteness from the practical, of prime importance for its broadening effect upon the mind and its refining influence on character. In the latter respect its sister study, literature, is the only one that will compare with it. Look through the list of required and elective courses offered by any college and you will find no other so sure to develop the quality of refinement which ought to be a distinguishing characteristic of the college graduate. I do not mean that this can be brought about by teaching the bare facts, names, and dates of the history of art, of the peculiarities of style or technique which distinguish one artist from another, but by clothing these facts in the splendid garments that belong to them, by giving the characters their proper setting in history, and by showing the arts for what they have always been, the expression of the civilization that produced them. In short, I mean teaching the subject as it was taught by that great master of it, Charles Eliot Norton. I was fortunate enough to begin my studies with him in the first years of his lecturing at Harvard, when the digressions complained of by later generations of students had not assumed an undue proportion of his lecture hour; and though in after years I studied under some of the most eminent authorities in Europe, and learned many facts from them which had not been taught by him, no one of them gave the same interest and fascination to the subject that he did, nor aroused anything like the same enthusiasm for it as a vital part of a liberal education rather than a field for specialists. I am happy to record here my great indebtedness for what he did for me in common with many others who heard him. At the time when I took his first course I was half way through college, and within a few months I was surprised to feel the

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extent to which he was pulling other and disjointed courses I had studied into line, coordinating them with his own. History, languages, literature, philosophy, all seemed to have a bearing upon what he was teaching, all were affected by it, so that in the end the studies I had followed in those four years shaped themselves into a well rounded whole, a unit, although even then I had no idea of making the fine arts my profession in life.

Now it is all very well to say that it was Professor Norton the man rather than his subject that had this effect upon his students, that his was a unique personality and a mind capable of giving charm to any subject upon which he touched, to an extent which the rest of us may not hope to attain. This is true, yet it need not put us wholly out of the running. One great secret of his success with his pupils was the method he adopted in his teaching, and this we can all study and follow to advantage. It was not original with him but he adopted it and applied it in a manner that appealed especially to the plastic mind of the student age. He began by laying down the principle that art is to be regarded as a "mode of expression"—of the highest expression of a race or an individual, because it embodies their highest ideals, their noblest aspirations, in a manner of which language is not capable. Hence its value for the unconscious testimony it gives of the character of a civilization, by illustrating the kind of ideals it sought to express in its monuments, whether of architecture, sculpture or painting. Then he took us from the Egyptians step by step through the Greeks, the Romans and so on to the end of the Renaissance, keeping the background of history constantly before us, making us feel how their rise, their climax and their decline were directly reflected in the works of art they produced from one period to another, and still more making us realize that what was true of past ages would be equally true of our own when we came to be measured

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by posterity. Another great element of his teaching was his manner of humanizing the various peoples that he talked about, and this was especially effective in the case of the Greeks. We who had struggled over the complexities of Greek grammar and labored to remember the dates of Greek wars suddenly found the Greeks transformed from the cold abstractions of a dead past into beings of flesh and blood like ourselves, with the same passions and weaknesses, wrestling with many of the same problems that occupy us in America to-day, and linked to us by many kindred ambitions and ideals. No wonder we were ready to study their art with admiration and delight. It was the ancestor of our own, and we soon forgot the distance of time that separated us.

Upon a class of students which is following the history of art by the method I have described the reaction is as varied as it is certain. No one can tell the depth to which it will reach in any one individual and frequently he is not fully conscious of it until years after leaving college, as I well know from the experience of many besides myself.

What are the benefits to be directly derived by the average undergraduate from this study? First of all is that which comes from a knowledge of the subject itself, with its immensely stimulating effect upon the mind and the imagination, and its widening of the range of human sympathies. As an avocation, a resource to which we can turn with pleasure and profit from our daily professional or business life, it has no equal. This we see demonstrated all about us by the extent to which those who can afford to do so surround themselves with works of art. The growing taste for them, with the desire of collectors to possess only works of high quality, is to me one of the healthiest symptoms of America in our time, based as it generally is upon a genuine love. Yet happily possession is not necessary for enjoyment. The real possession is

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the ability to appreciate. Equipped with this our travels abroad and our leisure hours at home can be made ten times more profitable than they are without it, and the profit is gained through pure enjoyment of the highest kind.

That the study, pursued in the manner I have been describing, has also an important effect upon the formation of character no one who has passed through the experience doubts for a moment. Even the lazy and indifferent among Professor Norton's many pupils now cheerfully admit that they got more good out of his courses than they were aware of at the time. This was inevitably the case because the constant distinction between what is fine and what is not, with the underlying reasons, cannot fail to have its effect in other directions than that to which it is immediately applied. And we must not forget the great value of the study in developing and sharpening the powers of observation, which is one of the chief practical benefits of a college education, in whatever occupation the student may follow.

These, however, are all selfish points of view. They affect only the man himself, not his relations to his fellow men. But we must never lose sight of the fact that the highest function of a college or university in a democracy is to turn out a useful body of public citizens, men and women to whom the community in which they live can turn with confidence for intelligent guidance in matters affecting the public welfare. Every American student should be made to feel this as a duty and responsibility entailed by a college education, and should prepare himself accordingly to meet it. Among public matters calling for such guidance art is now recognized as occupying a high place. People want their cities and towns to be beautiful, and the monuments in them worthy of the place as well as the purpose for which they are erected. Yet we may adopt it as a perfectly safe maxim that the layout of

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a civic center, about which we hear so much nowadays, will be no more intelligent than the commission that directs the work. The erection of a monument begins with the selection of the architect or sculptor, to be followed soon by the study of the design he submits. Neither can be done wisely except by persons who have some knowledge or appreciation of what is good and bad in art, and where is this to be looked for if not among college graduates? The character of a public building, a church, a library, or a museum, both in its architecture and its decorations, depends almost as much upon the committee that have charge of it as upon the artists they employ. Competent men in the various arts America has in abundance. What we need to produce is the intelligent layman, with whom they can cooperate in sympathy. When we have that combination we may hope to achieve what Macaulay had in mind in saying of the typical public man of the Italian Renaissance that "the fine arts profited alike by the severity of his judgment, and by the liberality of his patronage."

XVIII

ARCHITECTURE OF THE EFFECTIVE COLLEGE

HERBERT C. WISE¹

Inspiring work requires inspiring surroundings. Spoken or written words count for more if in their intervals the student's eye rests upon an ennobling scene. This scene may be one of natural beauty or it may have been created solely by the hand of man. Or it may be both; that is, a natural scene enhanced by the time-honored devices of that art, often called the mother of arts—architecture.

The visual aspect of the college, then, may be called "the architectural scene." No college can exist without it. Languishing mental activities are found to companion mean surroundings. On the other hand, the foremost colleges have the finest architectural scenes. They acquire them naturally while striving toward the van of intellectual progress, for is not architecture a summing up and embodiment of the progress of the race? Is it not, then, the most effective object lesson of man's conquest of the materials of nature, designed and wrought to the ends of his aspiring will? The effective college has a department of art where esthetic values are studied and compared, where that which is beautiful occupies the mind. Let the abstractions of esthetics be emphasized by giving them concrete form. Better to appreciate with knowledge and understanding than to revere in ignorance. What more effective way to drive the lesson home than to have fine, living architecture,

¹ Mr. Wise is collaborating with Mr. Charles Z. Klauder, architect of Philadelphia, in the preparation of a book soon to be published by the Association of American Colleges. The volume will be profusely illustrated and will be a guide both in the large and in detail to college trustees and administrators in improving the physical or architectural side of their institutions.—*Editor*.

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not only in books, but arrayed in its three dimensions near at hand serving human needs?

The responsibility of officers and trustees is heavy. Of the vast sums spent yearly for college buildings throughout the country, who dares say what proportion has been spent effectively? By that is meant whether the money procured buildings architecturally fine, buildings which will be revered decade after decade for their intrinsic beauty of proportions, their dignity and fine detail rather than merely for their size and cost. Of an Eastern college it is officially written: "On ———, 1896, the old historic building was burned. Since that time thirty-three have been added to the campus." In the writer's opinion, of these not more than two can lay any claim to architectural merit, much less to distinction. And the need for buildings increases everywhere. "The universities and colleges of the North Central States must expect each year freshman classes which will aggregate nearly 50 per cent. of the total number of graduates of the high schools of the same states." Thus reports a university president to his board.

Foresight and a determination to get the best should be the guides of presidents and trustees. A college officer recently remarked to the writer, "We need new buildings badly, but can do almost nothing for want of funds." One fine new structure was then being erected as a gift from a single donor. Close to it a building was being demolished. "Why," asked the writer, "is that large brick building being torn down; it is neither very beautiful nor very ugly; it seems very substantially built and as if it might have given many more years of service?" "Oh, to be sure," was the reply, "but it is in the way of the new building. It should never have been erected there, for it blocks any development of the campus on that side." Obviously a misstep had been made and money wasted. Was there ever stronger argument for foresight in laying out college grounds and in determining the sites for future buildings?

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In locating a new college, the primary consideration is the site. Every effort—even a real sacrifice, if necessary—should be made to acquire the finest. The site should be one of such natural beauty as to evoke admiration in the visitor and to be an inspiration to students and teachers. The major part of it, at least, should command a fine view over-looking possibly a river or lake. At an old college not so happily located a clearing out of hitherto obstructed vistas may go far to improve the situation. If the expansion of an adjoining town threatens encroachment on the college, far-seeing trustees will acquire intervening land.

An isolated building or two, architecturally distinguished, are not enough. These only make the other buildings meaner by comparison. Raising the standard of more buildings has the effect of raising proportionately the standard of the entire number. Sometimes an old offensive building may be altered, or at least have its ugly portions removed; and even the judicious application of paint may further the desired harmony of a college group of buildings.

A far better course than this, however, is to proceed on broader lines, to think of the plant in its entirety, to study its past growth and to strive to forecast the probable needs of its future expansion. There should be exhaustive study of the group as a whole and a comprehensive development plan prepared. The aim of this plan should be to make of the entire college group of buildings an orderly and harmonious entity. In order to insure this harmony, a style should be adopted in which all buildings are to be designed. In arriving at a choice the traditions and associations of the college and its environment should be considered, likewise the style of its first or initial building and the most suitable building materials available (whether stone, brick or stucco on concrete). It is a platitude of all times and countries that the verticality of Gothic consorts well with rugged and hilly sites while the Renaissance and Latin styles, with their conspicuous horizontal lines, especially adapt themselves to

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level or slightly rolling topography. No building should be constructed which is not absolutely fireproof. The initial cost of this construction is but little more than wood; its maintenance cost is extremely low, yet more exigent than these is the safety of human lives.

Relation of one building to another should be dictated by the affinity of their functions and uses. A sense of scale and proportion should be everywhere visible, that of everything being in its proper place. This applies to the main masses and units of architecture and does not preclude those surprises, always pleasant to the beholder, which come from a seemingly accidental juxtaposition and picturesque grouping. The general plan should make much of vistas. It should be founded upon axes and these in turn should rest upon a fundamental and permanent object or landmark. At some of our colleges, axes have for their termini that noblest of objects, a mountain peak. The varying levels of the terrain should be developed so that ascent and descent may have not only an esthetic but a psychological value. The plan should be comprehensible and unfold itself to the visitor. There will be a chief entrance which, however, does not imply that the property is enclosed, but rather that there is what might be called a "point of inevitable first approach." Upon entering, the visitor should be made aware of a system in the grouping and a studied coordination of parts. The four cardinal points of the compass may determine the location of the key buildings, such as the library, the chapel, the science and the academic groups. Within these there should be developed with the utmost study and skill that sacred precinct known as the campus or college yard, where all that is finest and symbolic of the college scene should meet the eye wherever it turns.

Removed from and secondary to this principal campus may be other areas, one within a group of men's dormitories, another where the dormitories for girls are situated. Not far from the men's dormitories will be the buildings

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devoted to athletic activities, the tennis courts, running tracks and the stadium. Similarly, if the college is a large one and coeducational, there will be a building or two devoted to the girls' recreation. The structures devoted to applied science, being as they are in a measure utilitarian in character, would properly be withdrawn somewhat from the main campus. The fronts or head houses of these buildings should conform in architectural character and should be of the same material as the main buildings, but their rear wings could be quite plainly and inexpensively constructed, similar indeed to the college central heating and lighting plant with which they may be close neighbors, since the central plant is a place of demonstration for students of the engineering sciences.

It is not necessary here to go into the design and planning of individual buildings. If they are projected ones, not only their sites but their approximate size will be indicated in the general scheme a capable architect will be able to adumbrate as the future architectural scene. He will give suggestions respecting their exteriors and the preservation of the proper spaces between them, and he will advise upon a possible moulding of the adopted style from formality in the academic buildings to a congruous freedom and picturesqueness in the buildings where the students spend their time outside of classes.

Such a scheme should be elastic in its detail, but in its principle it should be persistently adhered to and defended. This is the duty of the president, the officers and trustees. It is also their duty to know what good architecture is and to be deaf to any pleas that may frustrate its being obtained. A president or chairman of a building committee courageous and forceful enough to pursue these ends will be a friend indeed of the college. Bricks and stones happily assembled will long testify to his memory. For the effective college will last for centuries if it be admirable to the eye as well as to the mind, if it be a scene of that beauty

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resulting from the union of architecture and nature which has ever elevated the spirit of man.

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SEVENTH PART

RELIGION IN THE EFFECTIVE COLLEGE

Chapter

XIX. Religion in a Liberal Education

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XIX

RELIGION IN A LIBERAL EDUCATION

HERBERT E. HAWKES

My theme is the place of religion in collegiate education. My point of view is that of the college administrator, rather than that of the religious worker, the clergy, or the church.

The subject is by no means a new one. In one form or another, religion has exerted a profound influence on our colleges ever since Yale was founded to counteract the pernicious religious influence of Harvard.

I must preface my discussion of the present-day situation by a brief summary of events that have led our institutions of higher education into something very like a blind alley so far as their attitude toward religion is concerned.

Early College Religious History

In colonial times most of our colleges were founded in order either to train candidates for the ministry, or to hold the younger generation true to the faith. But religion fell upon evil days in the quarter of a century following the Revolution. Due to the influence of Rousseau, Voltaire, and others of the French school, and because of the disorganization which followed the war, religion was at a lower ebb in our colleges than it has been at any other time. In many institutions which registered one hundred and fifty or more students there were scarcely a dozen communicants, and faculty joined with the student body in expressions of scepticism and contempt of religious matters.

The great revival of religion which took place in our colleges between the years 1797 and 1804 produced a profound effect upon the religious interest both of students and teachers, with the result that during the thirty years following the beginning of the century, the number of men who went

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into the ministry from our colleges constituted in several cases from a third to a half of the entire number of graduates.

Denominational Colleges

Partly due to this stimulation, and partly due to the opening up of the Middle West, there was a great activity in the founding of denominational colleges beginning about the year 1830. During the two decades from 1830 to 1850 more colleges were organized than had been established in the entire two hundred years previous, and the rate of establishment of new colleges continued to be high, up to the end of the nineteenth century.

Most of these institutions were denominational, and consequently looked upon their function as largely religious. In fact, their origin and existence was due to a desire to strengthen the spirit and usefulness of their own religious sect. As a consequence students, dominated by the religious motive in their plan for higher education, have been naturally attracted to these institutions, and these colleges in turn have become more useful and stronger through this process.

An Opposite Tendency

While the religious motive was dominant in the host of denominational colleges, the state universities and privately endowed institutions, particularly in the East, were moving in the opposite direction so far as religion is concerned. The large universities naturally felt that they were not committed to any one religious sect, and gradually relaxed in their official and curricular attitude toward religion. This feeling was undoubtedly due in part to the fact that they must draw their material resources from all kinds and conditions of donors, as well as from the taxpayers, and in part to a desire to attract a student body from every creed and location.

With the increase in immigration and with the inclusion among the taxpayers of many divergent religious sects and

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creeds, it was inevitable that our public schools and universities should become less dominated by the church of our fathers, and more dominated by the state which must of necessity be non-sectarian.

But whatever the cause may be, the fact is that for the last forty or fifty years our larger state institutions and privately endowed colleges and universities, although retaining in some cases required daily chapel as a substitute for an alarm clock and always protesting in the public utterances of their presidents and professors that they are religious and even Christian, have done very little to include religion in their educational plans or in the offering to their students. If sectarianism was to be eliminated, religion must go with it. For in the mind of the time religion did not rise above or exist independently of sectarianism.

This sharp division along religious lines has existed up to the present time. While the denominational colleges are devoting themselves as best they may to maintaining and promoting their own faith, the state universities and many of the privately endowed colleges are doing almost nothing in religion. For in their opinion, to give any instruction in religion means a commitment to some particular form of religion, or even to some particular denomination or creed, which would make it impossible for them to occupy the high middle ground which they feel to be essential for their integrity.

Extra-Curricular Religion

The situation that I have described practically leaves the teaching of religion out of all our larger private, as well as public, institutions of higher education. At the same time, sympathetic support has been given to religion as an extra-curricular activity.

From the time of the rapid advance in influence of the Y. M. C. A. in 1870, and partly because of the work of men like Moody, Mills and Clark, students who so desired

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organized collegiate clubs or associations for the encouragement of devotional meetings, religious study, and all kinds of religious and semi-religious work. On many college grounds Y. M. C. A. buildings and university churches have been erected, and the religious interests both of students and faculty have frequently centered in these organizations.

In a sense they are non-sectarian, but not sufficiently non-sectarian to warrant their official backing, either financial or statutory, by institutions that had been forced to crowd religion and theology out of their undergraduate offering. And what is more important, their function has not been educational in the narrow sense. That is, they have not approached religion from the point of view of the scholar who would develop his subject as a field of study, research and objective treatment.

Student Enterprise Responsible

These religious organizations have been as remote from the curriculum as athletics, the college daily, or the glee club. Their initiation and maintenance was due to student or alumni interest and support. I repeat, it was an extra-curricular enterprise. Of course the reason for the importance that this movement assumed was due to the fact that religion is one of the few dominant interests of the human spirit, just as the spirit of play is a dominant interest of youth. If these interests cannot assert themselves in one way, they will in another. If the colleges do not think it wise to find a place in their courses of study for these interests, the students are bound to take matters into their own hands and to make a place for them in their own activities.

Courses in Bible

Furthermore, most colleges give courses on the Bible, and they have served a splendid purpose. But these courses treat the Bible either from the historical or the literary point of view, rather than from the distinctly religious

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angle. All of us who took these courses in college felt that the course in the Old Testament went along quite safely. But when we took up the New Testament the professor usually seemed to be on thin ice. He could not talk about the real core of the matter without restraint. For religion was not supposed to be a subject for collegiate study.

The reason for this restraint is due to the difficulty in taking the New Testament as a point of departure for a discussion of religion before a college class consisting of men of all kinds of faith and all varieties of doubt. There are too many divergent convictions both on the part of students and professors to make the path an easy one. Consequently the courses on the Bible are either frankly religious as in the sectarian colleges, or almost entirely literary and historical as in the privately endowed institutions.

With the background that has been described, what is the next move for the colleges in the teaching of religion? I do not now refer to denominational colleges, although the remarks that follow may not be without application to such institutions. I have particularly in mind the privately endowed colleges that have worked away from any feeling of responsibility for including religion in their curriculum.

Can Religion Be Taught?

Last summer I heard a powerful sermon by a well-known clergyman, in which he emphasized the thesis that religion could not be taught, and that there is no use in trying to do so. Religion, he said, could be lived but not taught. As well try to teach affection or loyalty. This position seems to me to miss the point of what real teaching is.

In the old days the professor of history used to read lectures to his more or less attentive students, giving by this means the facts of history and his interpretation of these facts. To-day the live teacher of history, or philosophy, or physics, or even mathematics is not a fact monger. He assigns readings for the acquisition of facts. His function

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is rather to stimulate his students to think about the facts that they have acquired, to place emphasis where he thinks it belongs, and to point out relations that the students would not be likely to have noticed in their reading.

Teaching does not consist in cramming a student's mind with information; it consists in making the student want to read deeply, to think clearly, and to see the bearing of his subject in the world of vital ideas. Real teaching stimulates but does not satisfy. With this definition of teaching I submit that religion is as legitimate a field for collegiate teaching as any subject in our curriculum.

Religion and the Fine Arts

The analogy between instruction in religion and in the fine arts is a close one. The esthetic and the religious are two aspects of the human spirit that actually exist, and that ought to be discussed, studied and developed.

Thirty years ago we used to hear that the esthetic side of our nature was not a proper subject for collegiate study. Art could be felt and practiced but not taught, they said. But to-day an understanding of the nature and the development of the beautiful through the media of painting, sculpture and architecture, music and literature leads our students by the hundreds to an appreciation of the beautiful in their own souls.

Many of them start with an objective study of schools and periods and composition, and end with a glow of appreciative understanding of lovely things that they never lose. This is real teaching. It is nothing else than an esthetic awakening of the mind to beauties before undreamed which is as real and important as the rational awakening that ought to come through a study of mathematics, or the civic awakening that ought to come through a study of the social sciences.

No instructor can teach reasoning or civic responsibility by precept. He can embody in his own character and man-

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ner of living a sense of truth and justice which may be reflected on his students. He can make the conditions as favorable as possible for his students to consider the attitude that they ought to take in these matters. But nowadays students do not take much on authority. They either work things out for themselves or they do not get them. The teacher of art, of mathematics, of government and of religion can only build the staging. The student must lay the bricks of his spiritual structure by his own effort. In the words of Doctor Buttrick, a college is an organized opportunity for self-education.

So much for the possibility of teaching religion, and its pertinence in a college course of study. I must say a few words about the angle of approach to the subject of religion for the present-day college student.

Man No Longer All-Important

As the scroll of history is unrolled before the young collegian, he must sense the fact that the whole tendency of scientific discovery, as well as of religious dogma, has led us away from a universe with man as its center.

In early times the earth was the center of the solar system. Now it takes its place with the other planets. Then each tribe, and even each family, had its particular gods. Other gods were false gods. Now we recognize God as revealing Himself in various forms to many peoples. Until recently man was set apart from all animate nature as a special creation. Now he is the highest and most specialized result of a long-continued creation. Yesterday the great religious aim of each individual was to save his own soul from a burning hell. To-day we are not sure that there is any burning hell, and most of us are willing to put in our time in being respectable people, and in raising the level of goodness, truth and beauty among those with whom we come in contact, leaving our personal salvation in the hands of a greater power than ours, without prejudice.

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Our earth, our religion, our physical body, our soul is no longer the center around which all earth, all life, all religion must necessarily rotate. Each is a member of a system, acting and reacting on the other members, and each moving in a space that is greater and more inclusive than any one. The individual to-day is not the center of his universe, but a member of a system so baffling in its complexity that it is hard for him to feel any sense of rest or stability.

The old régime rested on the dictum of some accepted authority. Aristotle, Genesis, the church fathers decreed these things, and it was sacrilege to question them, and I suppose that there will always be among us many men who feel the need of an authority outside their own thinking which they can use as a substitute.

We should be very careful in disturbing the faith of such individuals, because the disaster that befalls them is complete when their faith in the substitute for their own thinking is shaken. They usually fall clear to the bottom, losing all faith and all confidence in their own judgment as well as in the doctrines of the church. Unless they can see a scaffolding which starts at the bottom and which will enable them to build a new structure, they are in a sad plight.

Youth Uses Own Judgment

Generally speaking, however, our young people do not accept a dictum because it is in any book, however sacred, or pronounced by any person, however holy. They accept it because it conforms to the judgment of the ages, and in particular to their own judgment. Consequently in organizing a study of religion for college students to-day it is necessary to start back of the usually accepted creeds and doctrines, back of the distinctions that have led to our variety of denominations and sects, with the factual material or history, of society and of human nature as a solid rock on which the study of religion may be based.

In his autobiography, Doctor George A. Gordon remarks that he has always wished to write a book entitled *From*

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Authority, Through Anarchy, To Insight. Our young people have certainly emerged from the age of authority, either parental, societal, or divine. Each is master of his own destiny in an anarchy of individualism. It is high time that someone who possesses the vision clears the way for the next step, which is insight.

So far as our students are concerned, the slate is wiped clean for a consideration of religion. To be sure, they do not seem greatly interested in what would have been called religion fifty years ago. There is, however, no real lack of interest in religion.

The controversy, when it exists, is not between science and religion, but between science and some doctrine of theology. And many of the younger as well as of the older generation assume that theology, which ought to be the container of rich religious values, is religion itself. But in too many cases the container is quite empty, a fact that has not escaped the observation of our young people.

The normal, well rounded mind is interested in anything that is interesting. But the most striking feature of our young people is not their interest in religion, but their ignorance of it. With the falling away of home training in religious matters, our students have no idea what it is all about. And they are interested to find out.

The man who is ignorant of and is not interested in religion is in the same class as the man who is not interested in science, or art, or the social sciences. We do not frame our curriculum for those exceptional or imperfect minds who have blind spots, but rather for the normal mind that is anxious to obtain a well rounded education. And we cannot correctly assume that lack of interest in religion is the normal state. But real religion is more fundamental than creed and dogma, and our younger generation is in this primitive state just at present.

Their great question is found in the title of Doctor Coffin's recent book *What Is There in Religion?* What has

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it meant in the life of the race? How has its influence for good and for evil asserted itself in the rise and fall of the civilizations of the past? What does it mean in the life of the individuals of to-day?

Answers Are Non-Sectarian

The answers to these questions are as broad and as removed from any sectarian bias as are the subjects of anthropology, history and psychology. They bear the same relation to the development of a strong and vital religious feeling that the study of fine arts does to an appreciation of the beautiful. They are the scaffolding from which the youth of to-day may build a temple as solid and as aspiring as the scaffolding itself will allow. And the stimulation of our students to consider these questions is as pertinent a part of a college education as any subject in our curriculum.

Subject Matter for Study

There is a definite and abundant subject matter to present in the objective study of the nature and function of religion in human experience. For example, one may analyze the early forms of religion and the primitive religious consciousness, with all its myth, magic and ritual. The distinctive contributions to religious life made by the more influential traditions of the past may be critically surveyed, as, for example, the Greek gods, Buddhism, the Mosaic Law, the prophets of ancient civilizations, as well as the early forms of Christianity and the medieval mystics.

An important feature of such a study must comprise an analytical as well as an historical point of view, and it would be well to emphasize contemporary as well as historical religious ideas and practices. For example, an analysis and evaluation of contemporary religious practices and forms of worship, a study of their basis in the verities of human experience, their relations to the fine arts and to the life of the imagination affords an abundant field for objective and stimulating study and thought.

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One cannot omit a discussion of the fundamental concepts of religion, and the problems that are connected with them, such as the various ideas of God, faith and salvation. In a large city the various churches may be visited in order that the students of one faith may become familiar with the form of devotion which is practiced by others.

Way Paved for Detailed Study

A general orientation of the kind just outlined naturally leads the way for more detailed study and investigation, and a comparison of the great religious movements in history, as well as a study of the psychological aspects of the subject. Although much of the work must be chronological in treatment it is primarily concerned with values rather than with origins. The result of the work that has been done in this direction at Columbia is to bring about not only a tolerance of but an interest in other people's religion, as well as in one's own.

Instruction Difficult

It should be remarked in passing that instruction in such a course makes heavy demands upon a teacher. The instructors must be developed for this work. Clergymen out of a job will not do. Only a person with a deep and broad religious sense, a feeling for youth, a scholar's temperament, and the power of clear expression can expect success in this field.

The broad treatment of religion as just indicated does not need to disturb one's allegiance to any creed or faith. In our experience, Protestants, Jews and Catholics acquire a renewed appreciation and critical understanding of their own faith and its possibilities because of the knowledge of the place of religion in society and in the life of the individual.

Aim Not Devotional

This method of presentation is not aimed specifically at the devotional life of the student. For the reason that I

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have given earlier, it is impossible that either the public or the great private institutions should direct their instruction directly at the cultivation of the personal devotional life of their students. And even if they did, the result would be a failure. There is nothing that repels the average college student more promptly and completely than propaganda of this kind in a college course. So far as the function of religion as a subject of college study is concerned, the enrichment of the personal religious life of the student is second to the intellectual stimulation which follows that study. But even if one's real desire was to bring about a personal awakening to religious values in every-day living, I am sure that this channel of approach is the most effective in the long run.

Men do not put new wine into old bottles. We live to-day in a new age. Truth and goodness and beauty come to us in forms often unfamiliar. If we try to confine our presentation of these fundamentals in our old formula nothing worth while will happen. When new wine is put in old bottles the bottles break and both wine and bottles are wasted. We should not throw away our old wine that is in the good old bottles. But we actually have new wine in the new attitude of our younger generation. It may be that the method of approach to religion for our colleges, which I have outlined, will not affect directly the personal and devotional life of our students, but even in cases where it does not, it will certainly strengthen their education and ultimately enrich and vitalize their religious life.

XX

RELIGION IN THE DENOMINATIONAL COLLEGE

WILLIAM E. SMYSER

In the light of certain developments in recent educational history in the United States, it is advisable to preface this chapter by a definition, namely—that the effective college under survey must in the very nature of the case be a free college, free to search out and find and disseminate the truth. In so far as freedom of instruction is circumscribed or limited by traditional beliefs that run counter to the results of science generally accepted by competent men, or to the great body of human knowledge, to that degree the effectiveness of the institution, both in the field of education and, in the long run, in the field of religion, is impeded, stultified or frustrated. That is the lesson of history. A college or university (so called) that refuses to permit the application of scientific method to the study of the Bible, or requires its professors of geology to subscribe to a literal interpretation of the Old Testament narrative of creation, or forbids its professors of biology to expound the theory of evolution; that if opportunity offered would refuse appointment to its professorship of physics to a Faraday or a Sir William Thompson, for example,¹ both devout and humble Christians, because they could not accept some dogma peculiar to the sect in control—such a college or university cannot in its very constitution afford a complete and liberal education to its students, and consequently—to say nothing of the moral implications of its position—must fail in effectiveness of instruction and training in character. Freedom of thought and instruction the

¹ See S. J. Holmes in *School and Society*, Vol. XXVI, No. 661, p. 268.

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denominational college, worthy of its charter, will cherish and defend, and the disinterested love of truth it will inculcate in its students with jealous care.

But no less sacred and binding is the obligation which such a college owes to the church of its origin and nurture, the obligation to maintain in spirit and policy a positive Christian influence that will be effective in the formation of character and the development of the Christian way of life among the young people committed to its care. Indeed, it is not possible to teach anything as merely a rigid intellectual process, as President Lotus D. Coffman, of the University of Minnesota, has recently pointed out,² "since ideas pure and simple never exist, and every judgment of worth is the result of feelings which ideas arouse in us. One may teach the multiplication table," he continues, "so that his students will be saints or sinners. . . . No matter what he teaches he is making for a better or a worse world, he is influencing human conduct." This being so, all higher (and lower) institutions of learning unite in a glorious service. In the independent college and the state university, as in the denominational college, this gracious influence provenient in fine and robust personalities of the campus may be discovered. But what is accidental and occasional elsewhere, in the denominational college becomes institutional, a conscious objective toward which well-wrought programs are officially directed. Thus unless it is forgetful of its traditions, the denominational college is purposefully making for another and better world than Utilitaria. Over against the cynicism and scepticism of our day, its materialism, its worldly-mindedness, its love of pleasure as the end of life, its Nietzschean denials and revolts, it is quietly and effectively setting upon many a youthful heart the seal of whatsoever things are true, and honest, and just, and pure, and lovely, and of good report, and drawing them on to ponder upon them.

² In an address on Cap and Gown Day, at the University, printed in *School and Society*, Vol XXVI, No. 653, p. 1.

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Indeed, the primary agency on any campus for advancing the Kingdom of God among its students is in the men and women who make up its faculty. No mere hirelings, they, though sometimes treated as such, but, in the Carlylean phrase, "true, God-ordained Priests for teaching" in whose hands is the "fashioning of the souls of men by Knowledge." The cynic has no place among them, nor the misanthrope who has lost contact with and sympathy for youth, nor that rigorous intellectualist, not unknown in American institutions of higher learning to-day, who conceives his profession to be degraded if ever it is said in his presence that the college is a place for the upbuilding of character. Hence, the choice of men and women for the faculty of a denominational college is a delicate and sacred task. No artificial or conventional standards should hedge in the administrator in the exercise of his judgment—as, for example, that the selection should be limited to members of this or that denomination. Indeed, it may be remarked in passing, that while it is natural and proper that the dominant note shall be denominational, any requirement that the selection shall be strictly sectarian—that all should be Presbyterians, or Baptists, or Methodists, or what not—must deprive the institution itself of that universality of atmosphere which is essential to a liberal education. Three prime essentials there are, however, upon which the denominational college must insist. The first is scholarship, which often is the only consideration coming within the purview of the graduate school; the second is the ability to teach and the passion for teaching, which is an attribute sometimes scouted as of no moment by certain types of mind; and the third is character, a winsome and vigorous personality, moral earnestness—imponderables of the possession of which the Ph.D. degree is not always an index. A rare combination indeed, and not easy to find; and yet when found in one man or more, in its faculty, happy the institution and fortunate its students. How educational

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history glows with the record of the pervasive sweep of their influences in college halls, the upward pull of them, as of the sun upon the lesser planets.³ "Let us now praise famous men," sings Mr. Kipling, using as his refrain the opening words of the eulogy of the fathers in Ecclesiasticus—

And we all praise famous men—
Ancients of the Colleges;
For they taught us common sense—
Tried to teach us common sense—
Truth and God's Own Common Sense
Which is more than Knowledge.

Nor is this mere Victorian sentiment, at which it is the fashion for our young intellectuals now-a-days to sneer. It is rooted and grounded in human experience even from the days before the wisdom of the son of Sirach, which the perverse of the present generation will in due time come to realize. It matters little what subjects these masters teach; but how they feel about their teaching makes all the difference in the world. They may, or they may not, "talk religion" to their students—they certainly will never thrust it upon them; but their unobtrusive piety and humble faith, their fair dealing and kindness of heart, their honesty and intellectual integrity will speak in accents more pronounced than those that are uttered by the tongue. And because they therefore command the intellectual respect of their students in the class-room, they will be sought out by the unerring tact and intuition of youth whenever problems of getting under way are to be solved, momentous questions of life and destiny are to be settled, and faith oriented to new and broadening knowledge. "No, I cannot leave these students of mine until I have helped them understand that

³ By way of illustration, see *Eight O'Clock Chapel* (Houghton Mifflin Co., 1927), a story of the New England colleges of the 1880's and the great teachers of the day, to which I am indebted for some of the data on the following pages.

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there is no conflict between science and religion," was the answer of a young professor in a small denominational college when called to a larger institution at a much greater salary. "I'd like to be with you, but I can't leave here just now." Such devotion is not as unusual in the denominational college, as many of the more worldly-minded would suppose.

But even this is not enough to satisfy the nature and organization of the denominational college itself. There must be a definite program of religious instruction and inspiration. This duty cannot entirely be left to the many extra-institutional agencies among the students that are to be found in every college, of whatever category—the Young Men's Christian Association and the Young Women's Christian Association, for example. The college will rejoice in them, encourage them, and cooperate with them with sympathetic understanding. But it will find or create agencies of its own for the religious nurture and counsel of its students that will seek to bring them into a fuller knowledge of the truth that is in Christ Jesus. Many of them, indeed most of them, come from Christian homes and became members of the church in childhood. They must be prevented from wandering away. Their faith, often naive and unreflecting, must be enlarged by growing knowledge, deepened by experience as maturity increases, and grounded in reflection and a sound philosophy of life. To fulfill this purpose each college will develop a tradition and method of procedure peculiar to itself and the denomination of which it is a part. But, since youth is intolerant of an outworn mode, the methods will change from college generation to generation to suit changing conditions of thought and social psychology. At Yale, for example, for many years there were the class deacons, "three for each class, chosen by the class as a whole and set apart for the entire course for religious leadership and incentive." There was "The Day of Prayer for Colleges," the last Thursday of January set

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apart for religious services in New England colleges with sermon or address in the morning and a general prayer meeting at night, at which many solemnly declared themselves for the fellowship of Christ. And there have been, from time to time, "revivals" of the old-fashioned type under the leadership of men of faith and power. Henry Drummond came over from Scotland in 1887 to visit Harvard, Yale, Princeton, Williams, Amherst, Dartmouth—where recitations were suspended for his meetings—and other institutions; and brought about a quickening of the moral and religious life on every campus he visited, that has continued in ever-widening circles to this day, and casts into insignificance the influence of Matthew Arnold, the apostle of sweetness and light, who had come over the year before. Writing from Hartford, under date of September 23, Drummond says:⁴

We are now up to the neck in hard work. . . . We have had really splendid work at the colleges, far surpassing our expectations. Any one of them would have paid us for crossing the ocean.

And again from Yale, a few days later:

We have got at the very heart and brain of the college, and I am sure permanent work has been done, which will tell on all the colleges round when the men start out to work. . . . Do not infer that the whole college is in a state of wild excitement, for it is not so; nor did we want that. But the head centers are reached in every department, and they will do the rest before the term is many weeks older.

This visit is significant, because Drummond established a method of procedure that has continued to our own day within the walls of the denominational college in particular.

On the other hand, a writer of the younger generation, who thinks he discerns signs that "the small liberal college

⁴ Quoted from *Eight O'Clock Chapel*, pp. 219-220.

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is fast disappearing," in a comment on Mr. Moody's remarkable power over an undergraduate audience in Battell Chapel in 1885, opined that the historian of American thought will have a hard task in explaining it. "Other times, other customs," he remarks. Perhaps. And yet educational history since the days of Drummond and Moody, in the experience of scores of denominational colleges, which to-day give robust signs of permanence, has affirmed and affirms the contrary. Changed, of course, in externals, in forms and methods, the spirit of the "revival" has come down to our own time as a familiar aspect of religious activity among the college students of America, while the Drummonds and Moodys of our own day, and their lesser representatives, are under a like compulsion of faith and the claims of the churches they serve to spend themselves for the youth of these denominational colleges and with similar fruitful results.

Moreover, a special obligation rests upon the denominational college to develop and maintain, in the liberal arts tradition, courses of instruction in fields not always recognized as within the scope of the curriculum—courses in comparative religion and missions, in religious education, in sociology as it relates to the church and its problems in town and country and its activities in social service and in the English Bible. These will afford a background for those who are to become ministers, or missionaries, or social workers, though they should never become mere technical courses in training for professional activity. Their primary aim, however, may well be the instruction and inspiration of many young men and women, who will become enlightened leaders in the communities to which they return after graduation, centers of influence for the church and all good things in places where such leadership is most needed. This is, indeed, the true measure of the fruitfulness of any institution in the field of religion, and a service of as high import as the production of preachers for the home and foreign field, high and significant as that is.

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But, after all, the chapel at the denominational college is the very crown and center of its religious power, the point where all influences meet and cross and react one upon the other. This is the testimony of countless graduates and former students wherever the chapel has fulfilled its mission. Where the chapel has disappeared, for whatever reason, something fragrant and precious has evaporated from the life of the campus. If the chapel fails, the denominational college has failed. And the reverse is equally true. When the chapel is at low ebb, it is time for inquiry into the state of the college with much searching of heart. How far the contemporary debate on "Compulsory Chapel" and the substitution of voluntary for required attendance may spring from the youthful spirit of revolt, how far it is a protest against something which in the minds of the students has ceased to be worth while, each college in which the controversy has arisen must decide for itself. Undoubtedly the program has often become perfunctory, listless and indifferent; sometimes, too, the religious purpose has been allowed to be obscured by a multitude of interests that have intruded themselves upon the platform; more often, perhaps, the selection of leaders has been unfortunate, for it requires unusual tact to win and hold a college audience—the most difficult in the world to hold to a steady interest.⁵ Critical, full of the zest of life, often unconsciously and unintentionally profane in turning sacred things to sport if something arises to stir their laughter; untouched as yet by the graver experiences of life—death, sorrow, care, responsibility, sickness, failure—the subtler phases of religious experiences, the heights and depths that reveal themselves to the eyes of maturity lie far above their comprehension.

But a program that is free from cant and insincerity, that is varied in character, that is directed to the specific

⁵ Compare a letter from Robert Treat Paine to Phillips Brooks, *Eight O'Clock Chapel*, p. 215.

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end of worship and the quickening of the religious impulses—and that lies within the range of their understanding, invariably wins the response that only ardent and ingenuous youth can make. And from day to day in the heart of many a careless boy or girl some winged word will lodge to germinate into a righteous purpose for the years to come.

XXI

RELIGION IN THE CATHOLIC COLLEGE

JAMES H. RYAN

The Catholic college in the United States represents a practical outgrowth in a new land of the age-old educational philosophy of the Church. Historically our colleges did not develop from the idea of preparing men for the ministry, though the achievement of that objective was uppermost in the mind of John Carroll, the founder of Georgetown College, the first Catholic college in the United States. For centuries the Church had maintained with varying success colleges in every country of Continental Europe. The great medieval universities, to which our present-day colleges hark back, were anything but clerical in the depreciatory meaning often given that term. The clergy frequented these schools in large numbers and even held the majority of chairs in such universities as Paris, Oxford, Salamanca, and Bologna, but the tone of these early schools was not theological. It was severely humanistic and scientific, as students of medieval education are beginning to appreciate.

The medieval university was established much for the same reason that our modern universities are being built, for the investigation of truth and the spread of knowledge. It was only natural that, since Catholicism was the universally accepted religion, its teachings should have dominated the religious thinking of those institutions. This, of course, did not mean, as Professor Haskins has pointed out in his *Renaissance of the Twelfth Century*, that the men of the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, because of their profession of Catholicism, failed to enjoy academic freedom.

The Reformation changed radically the ideals of medieval education and destroyed, at the same time, a great deal of

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the educational work which had been laboriously developed by the Church. For centuries, and even to-day, the Catholic Church has been tremendously handicapped in her efforts to rebuild a system of higher schools of the same grade and imbued with something like the same ideals which animated Middle Age university education. The task has been unbelievably difficult in America due to the newness of the country, the poverty of the Church, and to other limitations under which we have labored too well-known to require description.

I have linked up the Catholic college in the United States with the medieval university, and have done so deliberately. The parentage of both schools is the same; the philosophy underlying each system has not changed, at least in essentials; and while we do not claim to exert as great a cultural influence on the national life as the Middle Age universities did on the civilization of their day, still our contribution to religion and to country is not altogether negligible when one considers the relatively short time that has elapsed since Catholic colleges began to function in the United States. And to my mind, the strength and future promise of the American Catholic college lies precisely in its acceptance of those principles of which the Middle Age university was so striking a formulation. The Catholic college in the United States is Catholic, which, translated, need not mean clerical or sectarian. It means Christian, in the historically accepted connotation of that term.

To many the Catholic college is but another and serious example of the unconquerable separatism which appears to underlie all Catholic activity in this country. There can be no question that the maintenance of separate institutions of collegiate grade does give rise to such an impression and confirms many people in the belief that the Church is deliberately placing obstacles in the way of the country assimilating its Catholic population. On examination, however, I am convinced that this analysis of the situation will be

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found a superficial one. In the first place, it is grounded in an assumption, widely accepted but none the less false, that every system of education not controlled by the state is bound to drive a wedge between our citizens. The assumption is highly *a priori* and dissolves into nothing more than a fear-complex when brought face to face with the fact that the religious school, far from dividing citizens into warring groups, works in exactly the opposite direction. I make bold to assert (novel as such judgment may appear to many) that it is on the doorsteps of the state school rather than on those of the religious school that must be laid a great deal of the blame for the prejudice, hatreds, and rancors which are disturbing contemporary American life. No doubt the Catholic college can be made a still greater assimilative force than it actually is; it has designedly and professedly worked in that direction despite the numberless obstacles which have been put in its way by thoughtless or unfriendly persons. Lack of comprehension of the purposes which orientate and control Catholic education or deliberate failure to investigate its work can only end in establishing and perpetuating a set of false judgments which, as any one can see, cannot but be fraught with serious dangers for all concerned.

The philosophy of the Catholic college has been stated so often, and to us appears so simple and straightforward, that it is difficult to appreciate how any one can continue to misunderstand our educational position. In the first place, we do not draw, either theoretically or practically, a line of division between secular and religious knowledge. This simple fact entails in itself a whole educational philosophy and gives rise to the practice of trying to bring the two into harmonious relations. This does not mean that we confuse religion with science, or that we do not appreciate that both religion and science have each its own field and methods, and achieve each its own results. Given this viewpoint, it is inconceivable that in the application of this prin-

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ciple to education we should be satisfied with anything less than a curriculum where the claims of religion and of science are properly balanced, and where the balance is sustained through its whole extent from the grade school to the university.

In the second place, we repudiate any cleavage between religion and morality. The one flows from and is grounded in the other. We feel that it is quite as important for our students to live the truth as it is for them to know what is true.

Rooting morality, and by consequence, human character in religion, we find it impossible to accept an educational system which divorces the two, or minimizes the relations of strict dependence which exist between them. Science, religion, and morality are conceived by us as forming a unit truth. To accept intellectually such a conception necessitates, in the realm of practical education, that all our efforts be directed toward the production of such a unified world-view in those who claim to be Catholics. No one, of course, would assert that the actual results achieved by our system of education attain the sublimity of such an ideal. Yet we could scarcely be true to those ideals were we to sacrifice to the interests of an individual here and there, or to the exigencies of the prevailing *Zeitgeist*, the unchanging truth which vitalizes the Christian conception of its task as a world-educator.

In every worth-while philosophy of education the place of religion must be clearly conceived and intelligently articulated with the general framework of educational practice. All educators are becoming daily more conscious of the truth of this principle. While they disagree in conceiving the place to be given religion in the school, and the practical steps to be taken to assure it this place, only a small minority hold to the view that religion itself is a negligible factor in the educative process or that it must be kept out of education altogether. The most profound dis-

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agreements, however, exist when it comes to defining what is meant by religion. It is precisely on this fundamental question that all Catholic educators agree. For us Christianity is a historic religion. The Church, we believe, is the interpreter and guardian of this historic religion. Now, the Church proposes a definite set of religious truths for our belief and a no less definite set of moral principles for our life, and it does so authoritatively. The teaching authority of the Church is, according to our belief, the teaching authority of Christ Himself. It does not entail, therefore, a species of authoritarianism against which the inquiring and scientific mind is compelled to rebel unless one's theory of intellectual freedom repudiates every type of truth except that which has been arrived at by the unaided light of human reason. The well-informed Catholic feels no intellectual restraints because of the authoritative character of the religious beliefs which he accepts. On the contrary, he experiences the utmost freedom in the discussion of every problem not directly concerned with matters of faith and morals. The atmosphere of academic freedom which one finds in a Catholic college has often been commented on, and is, in my view, a direct result of the dogmatic stability which is a no less prominent characteristic of such institutions.

The relations of the Catholic college to the state system of education are not difficult to define, on the assumption that we in America have definitely given up the idea of trying to bring about a state monopoly of education. It is difficult to see how the state school, as it is now organized, can be anything but a secular school, from which the teaching of religion necessarily is banned. On the other hand, that a redefinition of the educational function of the state is possible, no one can dispute. How this shall be done is a practical question which cannot be solved unless educators and legislators are willing to face frankly all the problems involved in a possible readjustment and are reasonable in

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the solutions which are presented for our acceptance. As the situation now exists, the Church must continue to make sacrifices to bring religion to its adherents, not only those who are attending primary schools, but to our men and women in college as well. A compromise on that point is unthinkable. That the relations of the Catholic college to the state university should be friendly, that both institutions should fully realize the debt of service they owe to the community, that their efforts should be harmonized and directed so as to produce the highest type of American citizen, so much goes without saying and will be accepted by all reasonable men. The Catholic college, motivated by the highest type of religious philosophy, will continue its work of producing upright, intelligent, and believing citizens for the Republic. It cannot do less and be true to the philosophy of life which it accepts.

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EIGHTH PART

FINANCING THE EFFECTIVE COLLEGE

Chapter

XXII. An Analysis of the Financial Needs of a College of Liberal Arts for One Thousand Students

Donald J. Cowling

XXIII. How Can the Financial Needs of a College of One Thousand Students Effectively Be Met?

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XXII

AN ANALYSIS OF THE FINANCIAL NEEDS OF A COLLEGE OF LIBERAL ARTS FOR ONE THOUSAND STUDENTS

DONALD J. COWLING

A Synopsis by the Editor¹

This study attempts to indicate the main items of expense in providing reasonably satisfactory opportunities for 1,000 students. The situation is considered under the following heads:

A Statement of Assumption on which the Analysis of Needs is Based.

B. Faculty Requirements for 1,000 Students.

C. Buildings and Equipment Needed for 1,000 Students.

D. Summary of Proposed Current Educational Budget for 1,000 Students.

E. Summary of Endowment, Plant and Current Fund needed for 1,000 Students.

F. Annual Cost per Student.

A. Statement of Assumptions on Which the Analysis of Needs is Based²

I. A Completely Equipped College

First assumption: That it is proposed to maintain a four-year college of liberal arts that shall represent (without extravagance) all the essential features of a college of the first rank.

¹ For the complete analysis see Association of American Colleges Bulletin, Vol. XIII, pp. 34-63, Feb., 1927.

² This statement attempts to summarize only those features of a liberal arts college which *directly involve expenses*.

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II. *A Liberal Arts Curriculum*

Second assumption: That it is proposed to maintain a liberal arts college without affiliated graduate, professional or technical schools.

III. *A Coeducational College, Limited to One Thousand Students*

Third assumption: That the student body will include about 550 men and about 450 women. The total enrolment will be limited to 1,000 students. More students would require additional funds.

IV. *A Four-Year College*

Fourth assumption: That a college of the type in question seeks chiefly to meet the needs of those who desire a full four-year course in liberal arts as a preparation for later professional study and life work.

V. *A Democratic College*

Fifth assumption: That the college in question will be a democratic college, and that it will include in its student body young men and women of various social and financial levels.

VI. *Academic Standards*

Sixth assumption: That it is desirable to maintain the following standards:

1. Students will not be admitted who are not able to meet the regular requirements for entrance.
2. Students will not be permitted, except in special cases, to carry more than 16 hours of class work, it being deemed more profitable to a student to do work of superior quality than to take more subjects with mediocre success.
3. Teachers will be expected to teach an average of about 12 hours per week, ranging from 9 hours to a maximum of 15 or 16 hours. (Laboratory work is counted on the same basis as regular classroom instruction.)

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4. Teachers in the ratio of one to about twelve students will be required.

5. Four grades of faculty ranking will be recognized: professor, associate professor, assistant professor and instructor.

6. Teachers will be asked to carry only a minimum amount of administrative work.

7. Teachers will be encouraged to maintain genuine interest in productive scholarship in order that their teaching may be kept fresh and vigorous.

8. Physical education and athletics for men and for women will be organized as regular departments of instruction.

VII. *Sabbatical Furloughs, Pensions, etc.*

Seventh assumption: That the efficiency of the faculty will be increased by providing for its members the following privileges:

1. A system of sabbatical furloughs for full professors equivalent to one year in seven on half pay.

2. A moderate allowance for attending annual professional meetings.

3. Provision for pensions. A satisfactory pension and related benefits can be provided by setting aside each year 10 per cent. of a teacher's salary.

VIII. *Repairs and Depreciation*

Eighth assumption: That it is desirable to provide comfortable physical surroundings for students and teachers.

A clear distinction should be made between charges for maintenance and charges for depreciation, representing estimated deterioration in physical properties not covered by current repairs. Both should be included in the current budget.

The depreciation charge should be adjusted to correspond to the actual conditions, averaging perhaps 2 per cent. on

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well-constructed buildings, 5 per cent. on permanent equipment, and perhaps as high as 20 or 25 per cent. or even higher on equipment which can be used for only a few years.

B. Faculty Requirements for 1,000 Students

The work of the college is carried on under six divisions.

I. DIVISION OF LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE(27)

Department	Total No. Teachers	Professors	Associate Professors	Assistant Professors	Instructors
1. English (Literature, Rhetoric and Public Speaking)	12	3	3	3	3
2. Latin	2	1	1
3. Greek	1	1
4. German	5	1	2	1	1
5. Romance Languages (French, Spanish, Italian)	7	2	1	2	2

II. DIVISION OF PHILOSOPHY, RELIGION AND EDUCATION(8)

Department	Total No. Teachers	Professors	Associate Professors	Assistant Professors	Instructors
6. Biblical Literature, History of Religion and Religious Education	2	2
7. Philosophy	2	1	1
8. Psychology and Education	4	2	1	1

III. DIVISION OF POLITICAL AND SOCIAL SCIENCE(12)

Department	Total No. Teachers	Professors	Associate Professors	Assistant Professors	Instructors
9. Economics	4	2	1	1
10. History and Government	5	2	1	1	1
11. Sociology	1	1
12. Home Economics	2	1	1

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IV. DIVISION OF SCIENCE(21)

Department	Total No. Teachers	Professors	Associate Professors	Assistant Professors	Instructors
13. Mathematics	5	1	2	1	1
14. Astronomy	2	1	1
15. Geology	1	1
16. Geography	1	1
17. Physics	3	1	1	1
18. Chemistry	4	2	2
19. Biology (Zoology and Botany)	5	2	1	2

V. DIVISION OF FINE ARTS(7)

Department	Total No. Teachers	Professors	Associate Professors	Assistant Professors	Instructors
20. Art	3	1	1	1
21. Music ³	2	1	1
22. Dramatic Arts	2	1	1

VI. DIVISION OF HYGIENE, PHYSICAL EDUCATION AND ATHLETICS(9)

Department	Total No. Teachers	Professors	Associate Professors	Assistant Professors	Instructors
23. Hygiene and Public Health	2	1	1
24. Physical Education and Athletics for Men	4	1	1	1	1
25. Physical Education and Athletics for Women	3	1	1	1

³ It is assumed that two teachers will be able to offer the theoretical courses in music for which no special fee is charged. The salaries of such additional teachers as may be needed to give individual instruction in music will be provided for by special fees and are therefore not included. These additional teachers will be on regular full-time appointment and will be given the same rank and salary as their training and experience would merit in other departments. No commissions will be paid.

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SUMMARY

Rank	Number	Per cent.
Professors	33	40
Associate Professors	17	20
Assistant Professors	17	20
Instructors	17	20
Total Number of Teachers	84	100

C. Buildings and Equipment Needed for 1,000 Students

It is practically impossible to outline a model college plant which will constitute the best solution of the building problems for more than a single institution. The following table⁴ is therefore based upon the situation at Carleton College and represents the present plant, with such additions as have been definitely planned for its expansion.

Proposed Educational Plant

Grounds:

Campus, including grading, paving, drainage system, etc.	\$200,000
Men's Athletic Field	30,000
Women's Athletic Field	20,000
	\$ 250,000

Educational Buildings:

Main Building (Recitation rooms, offices for faculty, administration, etc.)	\$500,000
Library Building	250,000
Chapel	200,000
Physics Building	200,000
Chemistry Building (Chemistry, Geology, Geography, Home Economics)	250,000
Biology Building (including Greenhouse, etc.)	225,000
Astronomical Observatory	100,000
Music Building	150,000
Art and Museum Building	200,000
Men's Gymnasium	225,000
Women's Gymnasium	200,000
	2,500,000

⁴ The table does not include dormitories, dining halls, heating plant, nor any other self-supporting buildings or equipment, such as college hospital, faculty houses, janitors' houses, college book store, laundry, farm, etc. These service buildings and equipment should be self-supporting and may be financed out of income.

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Educational Equipment:

Library	\$250,000	
Laboratory apparatus	150,000	
Art and Music equipment and Museum	150,000	
Gymnasium equipment	50,000	
Chapel equipment (organ, etc.)	25,000	
Furniture, fixtures, office equipment, etc.	125,000	
	<hr/>	750,000

Total Value of Educational Plant \$3,500,000

D. Summary of Proposed Current Educational Budget for 1,000 Students

Current Educational Expense

Salaries:⁵

For Instruction

Professors⁶

29 at \$5,000 \$145,000.00

Associate Professors

17 at \$3,500 59,500.00

Assistant Professors

17 at \$2,800 47,600.00

Instructors

17 at \$2,000 34,000.00

Assistants

..... 2,000.00

Miscellaneous (Visiting

Professors, etc.) 500.00

\$288,600.00

Reserved for teachers on

furlough (1/12 of total

salaries of active full

professors) 12,083.33

\$300,683.33

For Library 18,000.00

For Administration 30,000.00

Total for Salaries \$348,683.33

5 per cent. allowance for pensions 17,434.17

\$366,117.50

⁵ The average salaries here proposed will make possible a scale of salaries running from \$4,200 to \$6,000 (higher in exceptional cases) for full professors, \$3,200 to \$4,000 for associate professors, \$2,500 to \$3,000 for assistant professors, and \$1,800 to \$2,400 for instructors.

⁶ It is assumed that four professors will be on furlough each year.

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Supplies and Expenses:

Departmental ⁷	\$ 15,000.00	
Library	2,000.00	
Administration	13,000.00	
		30,000.00

Operation and Maintenance of Plant:

Wages	\$ 20,000.00	
Heat, light, power and water	48,000.00	
Insurance	8,000.00	
Campus upkeep	2,000.00	
Repairs	20,000.00	
Miscellaneous supplies	2,000.00	
		\$100,000.00
Depreciation	87,500.00	
		187,500.00

General Expenses:

Religious services, commencement, etc.	6,000.00
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Total Current Educational Expense \$589,617.50

It is assumed that the income to meet this expense for educational purposes will come from two sources: (a) tuition from students, and (b) income from endowment funds. The college will not be obliged to ask for gifts for current expense.

The proposed tuition charge of \$250 would provide an income of \$250,000, of which \$200,000 would come from cash payments by students, \$25,000 from deferred student payments, financed through student loan funds, and \$25,000 from scholarship funds. To produce the balance of \$339,617.50 still needed to meet the total educational expense of \$589,617.50, there will be required endowment funds of \$6,792,350, invested at 5 per cent.

The following table summarizes these items:

⁷ The departmental expenses here listed do not include expenses covered by special fees.

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Current Educational Income

800 students each paying \$250 tuition in cash	\$200,000.00	
100 students each paying \$250 tuition with money received as scholarships	25,000.00	
100 students each paying \$250 tuition with money received as loans	25,000.00	
		\$250,000.00 ^s
Income from Endowment	339,617.50	
Total Educational Income		\$589,617.50

E. Summary of Endowment, Plant, and Current Funds Needed for 1,000 Students

On the basis of the standards indicated above, a college for 1,000 students, with a tuition charge of \$250 a student, needs \$6,792,350 for general endowment with income available for current expenses. In addition to this, an endowment of at least \$1,000,000 is needed to provide an income of \$50,000 a year for necessary annual additions to permanent equipment (books, laboratory apparatus, etc.), not included in the current educational budget; at least \$500,000 more to provide an income of \$25,000 for scholarships for superior students of limited means; and an additional sum of \$125,000 to be used as a revolving fund for loans to students who should be encouraged to undertake the responsibility of repaying the help received. (This would provide \$25,000 a year for student loans averaging five years in length.)

It is also proposed to provide a fund of \$100,000 as current working capital. A college frequently needs to borrow money for short periods of time or to finance some undertaking temporarily in anticipation of expected income.

The following table summarizes the amounts thus needed as capital investment to provide adequate college opportunities for 1,000 students:

^s This total does not include the income from special fees (music, chemistry, etc.), it being assumed that these fees will be applied to special expenses, not included in this budget, for individual instruction and for materials for individual use.

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1. *Endowment Funds:*

Endowment for Current Expenses.....	\$6,792,350.00	
Endowment for Annual Additions to Permanent Equipment	1,000,000.00	
Endowment for Scholarships.....	500,000.00	
Revolving Fund for Student Loans	125,000.00	
	<hr/>	\$ 8,417,350.00

2. *Plant:*

Campus, Athletic Fields, grading, drainage system, etc.	\$ 250,000.00	
Educational Buildings	2,500,000.00	
Equipment	750,000.00	
	<hr/>	3,500,000.00

3. <i>Current Fund</i>	100,000.00
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\$12,017,350.00

F. Annual Cost Per Student

The "annual cost per student" is found by dividing the total spent for current educational purposes by the average number in attendance in any given college year. No provision is made for a summer term nor for special students.

I. Current Educational Expense

The total "current educational expense" upon which the "annual cost per student" is based should include only those items which are directly related to the distinctly educational opportunities provided and which do not result in adding to the book value of the permanent equipment. The following items should therefore *not* be included:

1. *Permanent Equipment.* It is assumed that a college of the type in question will provide adequate buildings and all the library books, laboratory apparatus and other supplies that may be necessary for the proper development and illustration of every course offered. However, all such expenditures for new equipment and buildings which result in an addition to the capital investment appear in the capital account and should not be included in current expense.

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2. *Scholarships.* Scholarships awarded on the basis of a student's need should not be included. Prizes offered to stimulate scholarship and open to all regardless of financial need are educational devices and should be included.

3. *Expenses Covered by Special Fees.* It is assumed that special fees charged for laboratory courses will be sufficient to provide for the replacement of equipment and materials consumed by individual students. Neither expense nor income for any items covered by special fees is included. Deterioration in physical properties not covered by current repairs is charged to the current budget through the item of depreciation.

4. *Intercollegiate Athletics.* It is assumed that all direct expense for intercollegiate athletics will be paid from gate receipts.

5. *Public Concerts, Lectures, etc.,* should be self-supporting.

6. *Dormitories and Dining Halls.* Colleges, not being charitable institutions, are under no obligation to provide room and board for less than cost. Students who are unable to pay the full cost may be helped, as individuals, through scholarships and loan funds. It is therefore proposed to manage all dormitories and dining halls on a self-supporting basis.

7. *College Hospital and Health Service.* This service should be organized on the same plan used for dormitories.

8. *Heating Plant.* Inasmuch as the central heating plant serves the dormitories, hospital, etc., as well as buildings used for instruction, it is proposed to operate it on a separate budget, on the same plan used for dormitories, and to allocate the total cost of its operation to the various units served, on some equitable basis, such as square feet of radiation. The same plan is followed with reference to light, power and water.

9. *Faculty Houses, etc.* It is assumed that such auxiliary services as are rendered by faculty houses, college farm, book store, laundry, etc., will be self-supporting.

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10. *Publicity and Alumni Bureau.* It seems obvious that the cost of financial campaigns and expenses in connection with keeping the public and the alumni interested (Alumni Secretary, Alumni Bulletin, etc.) should not be charged to the current educational budget.

11. *Interest on Indebtedness.* Interest payments, no matter for what purpose the money is borrowed, are not a part of the current expenditures for distinctly educational purposes and therefore should not be included in the current educational budget.

II. *Cost Per Student*

In the foregoing budget it is assumed that the average enrolment for the two semesters will be the equivalent of 1,000 full-time students. The total of \$589,617.50 represents only the current expenditures for the distinctly educational work of the college for a given year, and does not include any of the items referred to in the above paragraphs. Dividing this total of \$589,617.50 by 1,000 shows a proposed expenditure of \$589.62 per student. It is assumed that students will pay a tuition charge of \$250, or about 43 per cent. of the cost. Deducting the total per student payment (\$250) from the total per student cost (\$589.62) leaves a balance of \$339.62 per student as the proposed net annual cost to the college of each student for the current educational opportunities provided.

To this should be added 6 per cent. interest on the funds (\$3,500,000) invested in grounds and educational buildings and equipment, amounting to \$210,000 or \$210 per student.

Adding this \$210 per student, representing an interest charge for educational buildings and equipment, to the net current cost of \$339.62 per student, makes a total net annual cost to the college of \$549.62 for each student.

In addition to the above, it is proposed to spend \$25,000 a year in assisting a limited number of students with special scholarships and to offer further assistance in the form of loans amounting to \$25,000 a year.

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From the foregoing analysis, it will be evident that teachers, students and the public must all cooperate if good college opportunities are to be provided at moderate rates.

A college education should be thought of primarily as an investment and not as an expense. If a student makes worthy use of the opportunities provided, the investment brings rich returns in character and capacity for service and adds to the nation's wealth its most important element—a citizen with powers developed and devoted to noble ends.

XXIII

HOW CAN THE FINANCIAL NEEDS OF A COLLEGE OF ONE THOUSAND STUDENTS EFFECTIVELY BE MET?

TREVOR ARNETT

In attempting to offer a solution to the problem of how the financial needs of a college of one thousand students are to be met, we must keep in mind that the question can not be answered in terms of an individual college, but the plan must be applicable to colleges as a group. No college can settle its affairs without reference to the conditions surrounding it. It is part of a great system, subject to the influences and factors which apply to all members of the system, and any plan suitable for meeting its financial needs must be one which could be adopted by all the other members of the group.

This being the case, it will be best for me first to give you a picture of the financial status of the colleges and universities of the United States as revealed by the publications of the United States Bureau of Education, the amount of their annual income and the sources from which it is obtained.

The latest figures available are found in Bulletin No. 45 of the U. S. Bureau of Education, Department of the Interior. The first thing to attract attention is the tremendous growth which has taken place since the opening of the twentieth century. The value of the property of all these institutions of higher learning on June 30, 1924, is placed at \$1,871,647,873—an increase of 377 per cent. since 1900. The total endowment possessed by them in 1924 is given as \$814,718,813—to which amount it has grown from \$177,127,965 in 1900—a gain of 359 per cent. In other words, colleges and universities increased their endowment 4.6 times

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in those twenty-four years. In the two-year period 1922-24 the increase in endowment was \$115,505,361—a sum equivalent to 65 per cent. of the total amount of endowment which they had accumulated from the time of their foundation up to 1900. But the annual receipts for all purposes show a much more astounding growth. For 1923-24 they are reported at \$388,242,587—nearly nine and one-half times greater than they were in 1900. Since we are now especially concerned with the annual income, it will be interesting to see from what sources and in what amounts from each source this \$388,242,587 came.

RECEIPTS, 1923-1924

The receipts for 1923-24 of \$388,242,587 were made up of the following:

	<i>Current Purposes</i>	Per cent. of Total
Student fees	\$81,171,612	31
Income from endowment	40,431,608	15
Gifts—current expenses	12,375,326	5
United States grants	13,641,424	5
State and Municipal grants	73,423,956	28
Other sources	42,047,049	16
	<hr/>	
	\$263,090,975	100

Room Rents and Board

Room rents	8,934,749	
Board	28,028,858	
	<hr/>	
	36,963,607	

Capital Purposes

Increase of Plant:	
State Grants	18,828,593
Private	22,632,735
Endowment	46,726,677
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	88,188,005
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TOTAL	\$388,242,587

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Student fees in 1924 were 21 per cent. of the receipts for all purposes, capital and current, and if receipts for capital purposes and for board and room are excluded, they formed 31 per cent. of the receipts for current expenses. In other words, for every dollar toward current expenses paid by the student, \$2.23 came from other sources; and if receipts for capital purposes are also included, only \$1.00 out of every \$4.35 was paid by him.

From the same Bulletin one learns that in the two-year period 1922-24 productive endowment increased 16.5 per cent., the number of students 20.6 per cent., and the total fees paid by students increased 26 per cent.

On looking merely at the great increase in annual income, one might conclude that the question of how to meet the financial needs of a college of 1,000 students was purely academic, and that the problem was one of allocation of existing resources rather than the discovery of new ones. But unfortunately that delightful condition does not exist, as is only too well known to college administrators, who spend many weary hours trying to meet with the income available what seem to be the imperative needs of their institutions. The needs of the colleges have shown a disposition to grow faster than their income, and on top of this tendency the value of the dollar has shrunk until it is now worth but two-thirds of what it was in 1914. Therefore, to place a college on the same level financially as it was in 1914, its income should be increased 50 per cent. In the meantime student enrolment has grown enormously, so that the financial strain has been increased in two ways: first, to find a greater number of dollars to do the work of a smaller number in former years; and second, to obtain a larger income to provide for the increased attendance.

Main Sources of Income

The income of a privately controlled college or university comes from three main sources:

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- (1) Income from endowment.
- (2) Gifts from individuals.
- (3) Fees from students.

The proportion from each source differs among the institutions. A study made in 1924 of 523 colleges and universities, state and private, revealed the fact that of the more than half a million students enrolled, two-thirds were in private institutions, as follows: one-third in those which possessed endowment of less than \$1,000 per capita, about one-sixth in those having between \$1,000 and \$2,000 per capita, and about one-sixth in those having over \$2,000 per capita. The opinion has been expressed that at least one-half of the per capita expenditure for students should be met from endowment income. Less than 8 per cent. of our students are attending institutions thus circumstanced; and it must therefore follow that in these institutions fees from students and other income are largely in excess of one-half the cost.

Before expressing an opinion regarding how the cost of college education shall be met, it may be best to discuss a just basis of division of cost among its beneficiaries. Colleges were founded as charitable institutions to be maintained by contributions from philanthropically-minded persons. Education was practically free to the students, because they were preparing for the ministry, to teach, or to engage in some other profession or activity in which the pecuniary rewards to the individual were slight but the gains to the public were large. For this reason it was fair to ask the public to pay the cost. That theory regarding the financing of college education has persisted to the present day, although the purpose for which training is sought has almost wholly changed. It is now the hope and expectation of most persons going to college that the course will be of distinct economic and social value to them. Since the early days of our colleges there has been a further development in higher education. Besides the work for undergrad-

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uates which formerly comprised the curriculum, there is now the graduate and research work, whose purpose is to extend the boundaries of knowledge and the science of teaching. As a consequence of these altering conditions and purposes, college education is of a type which benefits the student, while graduate instruction and research chiefly benefit society.

Since the Great War the proportion of the cost of education which the student should bear has been much discussed because of the colleges' need of additional revenue. Probably in all institutions of higher learning fees have been increased since that date, and in many instances two or more increases have been made. However, there does not appear to have been a consideration of all the factors involved, but only the bearing which the need for a larger income had on the subject. Consequently no general plan has been followed, because the amount of additional revenue required differed among the institutions. The question of what the student should pay is a complicated one at best, and can not be settled satisfactorily solely upon its relation to the amount needed by the college or university in order to balance its budget.

There are factors in the situation of wide political, social and economic importance which must be clearly understood, and the extent to which they are beneficiaries of higher education carefully appraised, before the share of the total cost which the student should pay can be justly determined. At present, the only universal principle observed regarding the amount which the student should pay is that he should not bear the full cost. This principle is based on the previously mentioned theory that higher education benefits society as well as the recipient, and also on the democratic theory that the opportunities for higher education should be open to all. But as I have already stated, the purposes for which college education is now sought differ in many respects from the purposes for which it was sought in the

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past, and it may be worth while to inquire whether the principle that the student should pay only a part of his college education now is sound and applicable to the situation.

There is another factor in the situation which must not be overlooked. Higher education is not all furnished by privately supported institutions, but an ever-increasing portion is provided by state-supported institutions. In the study to which I have referred, one-third of the students were enrolled in state-supported institutions.

In the light of these conditions, and giving every factor due weight, I offer the following suggestions regarding the proper allocation of the cost of higher education. It should be understood that these suggestions apply to college education in all colleges, whether separate institutions or as the undergraduate departments of universities.

- (1) That in colleges of arts and sciences the undergraduate student should bear a greater part of the cost than the graduate student.
- (2) That the portion of cost borne by the undergraduate student should approach the total cost as a limit.
- (3) That in the undergraduate colleges, the fee charged should be based on the total cost, and should approach it as a limit, and as soon as possible should be identical with the total cost.
- (4) That in state-supported institutions the same principle should be observed—*i.e.*, a larger share of the cost should be borne by the college student, and a smaller share by the graduate, unless the state should feel that to be entirely logical in its theory of providing equal and free opportunity for higher education for all, it should furnish a portion or all of the living expenses of its students if need be, as well as tuition. If the latter plan were followed, the state would need to adopt a basis of selective admission, so that only those qualified to benefit by a higher education would be received.
- (5) That in the professional schools the cost of education be divided between the student and society, in the proportion of benefits received. The application

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of this principle would result in students in certain professional schools paying all or the major part of the cost.

- (6) That to enable the student to pay the proportion of cost of education chargeable to him, as well as his living expenses if necessary, generous use be made of scholarships, student aid and loans, so that no worthy student be excluded.
- (7) That the principles above enumerated be adopted gradually as conditions become suitable.

With reference to the principle suggested that the graduate student in arts and sciences should bear a smaller portion of the cost as compared with that of the undergraduate, I think we will all agree that the researches of the graduate student in those fields, if successful, are more likely to benefit society than the student and are made at a personal sacrifice because the student is postponing his participation in remunerative employment. Therefore, society should bear the greater part of the cost.

The principles suggested in (2) and (3) are really identical, but represent the student's and the college's sides of the picture, respectively. They are based on the theory that the student in the undergraduate colleges is the chief beneficiary and therefore should bear the greater part of the cost.

I do not believe that the principle here stated should be adopted hastily or in a wholesale fashion. However, if it were adopted, I am sure that it would have far-reaching effect. A study of the present situation indicates that in comparison with his increased earning power and the economic value of a college education, the student could well afford to pay a larger tuition fee. Then, too, it is felt that many students in college are not receiving any benefit from it, and in most cases these are a positive detriment to those who would. It is a fact, however, that many of those best able to pay a higher fee are in the class of those receiving the least benefit. The objection may be raised that if the

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college student is required to pay the greater part, or all, of the cost of his education, the colleges would be filled with those financially able, to the exclusion of those worthy and promising persons without resources. Furthermore, where such colleges are in competition with state-supported institutions, it is feared that students would be forced to attend the latter. Let us see how the plan might operate and determine, if possible, whether the objections are valid.

Let us assume that College X has decided to charge the cost of operation to its students. Let us assume that the annual cost of operation is \$500,000, and the enrolment 1,000. It is evident that the average cost per student is \$500, disregarding for the moment differences in cost of different groups of courses. Therefore, the average yearly tuition fee would be placed at \$500. It is also true that if all the students pay \$500 each, the entire expenses of operation would be met without assistance from any other source. This would be satisfactory to the college from the financial standpoint. But how would the matter look from the student's side? Every student would be required to pay a fee of \$500, and many of them would be unable. It would no doubt be found that very many were able and would readily pay the fee. With respect to the remainder, individual arrangements could be made by giving them full or partial scholarships, grants from student-aid funds, and in other cases by loaning the amount for a period until after graduation, perhaps without interest up to the date of maturity. Since the college would not under this plan need to seek funds for current expenses, philanthropically disposed persons might make gifts for aiding the student to pay the fee, rather than devote them to endowment for the purpose of reducing the cost of education to all students alike without reference to their ability to pay the full cost.

Gifts for Student Assistance Have Popular Appeal

From my experience I have learned that more people are interested in giving money to an educational institution for

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the purpose of helping the student than to furnish a good education to the student. Fraternal organizations, women's clubs, and the like, find it easy and acceptable to raise funds to aid young people to obtain a college education. With the eagerness shown to give funds for this purpose, there should be no reason why the student of slight resources should not be able to receive necessary assistance.

With regard to the objection that with such a plan as the one suggested in effect in privately supported institutions, students would desert them and attend the state-supported ones—there may be some force, for no doubt it is true at present that some students choose state-supported institutions because of the lower tuition fee charged by them. On the other hand, although privately supported colleges and universities have been constantly increasing the tuition fee, their attendance has also increased, and there is apparently no change in the representative character of the student body. It is doubtful whether the imposition of still higher fees would alter the situation greatly. Students selecting endowed colleges and universities have reasons for their choice which in their opinion outweigh the differences in tuition fees. Mounting costs may also force state institutions to increase their fees, as they have done in the past, and thus the same relative situation as at present will be maintained. The most logical solution would seem to be the adoption by the state of the principle which I have suggested for endowed institutions.

Several important consequences would, I think, follow the adoption of the pay-in-full principle.

1. Institutions of higher learning would need to appeal to the public only for funds for certain graduate instruction and research, and perhaps for plant and equipment for undergraduate work.

2. Colleges would be more anxious to obtain an efficient cost, otherwise their fees in comparison with those of others better administered would be looked upon unfavorably, and they would suffer from the competition.

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3. Parents and students would get a clear understanding of what a college education costs, and since they would have to pay for it or make arrangements to do so, the desire to obtain it would more likely be a serious one.

4. Selective admission would be aided, for the student body would more probably be composed of those of earnest purpose, and the classes not retarded by those unfitted to do good work.

5. Colleges would be quite as democratic as they are now, for no one should be excluded for financial reasons. Nor would the administration of the plan wound sensitive students, since all would be on an equality as to fees charged, and the method of providing for them would be an individual concern. In our colleges and universities the majority of the students at present receive some sort of financial aid. Under the new plan the aid would be given to a greater degree.

As I have indicated, the principle herein stated should not be adopted hastily or all at once, but should be put into effect gradually as the colleges and their constituencies become prepared for it. I have stated that the college tuition fee should approach the total cost of education as a limit, and the portion of the cost borne by the undergraduate should approach the total cost as a limit. I mean by this that the goal of complete payment of cost by the college student should be the end sought, and in the course of time eventually reached. Colleges and universities are now advancing in that direction by constantly increasing the amount of tuition fee. The plan I have suggested indicates the final objective clearly and urges that it be reached as soon as all conditions are favorable.

What Comprises Cost of Education?

The question of what the total cost herein referred to includes may properly be raised. Should interest on the investment in the physical plant and provision for its de-

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preciation and replacement as well as the ordinary costs of operation be charged? I believe that for the objective sought it should include only the ordinary costs of operation, with the assumption that provision for buildings shall be made by society. If the plan for the student to pay the cost of education as herein defined proves satisfactory, the question of including the proportionate cost of use of the plant and its replacement might then be considered.

XXIV

THE BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION OF AN EFFECTIVE COLLEGE

WILLIAM O. MILLER

Space is to be the essence of this chapter. When I began to jot down important divisions of administrative organization appropriate to such a publication I soon found that they greatly exceeded in number the lines allotted to its presentation. I feel, therefore, like a certain man who was bitten by a mad dog and refused the pleas of his friends to go to a hospital for treatment. A few days later they found him feverishly writing away on several sheets of paper. When asked if he was drawing up his will, he replied, "No. I'm making a list of the people I want to go out and bite." This chapter, therefore, is not a last word or testament. It is at best a list of administrative morsels thrown out for laceration by sundry intellectual teeth.

Let us for a moment draw upon our imagination and assume that the readers are collectively a board of trustees who have begged me to take the presidency of the Effective College which we now have under consideration. Let us assume further that like the University of Eureka of Robert Herrick, or like that southernmost university in the land of oranges—and lemons—it is to spring full-fledged and financed from the brow of philanthropy or keen-scented promotion. What are the administrative strengths with which I would wish to panoply my institution? I would first decide whether my attitude toward administration was to be summed up in that familiar phrase frequently applied to one of its major divisions—"A mere matter of bookkeeping," or in a realization that as about one-half of the enormous total invested in higher education is spent in physical plant maintenance and business administration, it should

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command my closest scrutiny to assure myself that the function of administration, to promote and foster the highest educational service, was accomplishing its work with the least expenditure consistent with efficient organization. I would inscribe over the portals of my administrative building the ideal that the whole purpose of administration was to serve education and that every dollar saved in administration was another dollar available for education.

I would make this motto the Alpha of my business organization, and my next step would be to put the breath of life and action into it. What are my sources of information and help? Many books have been written on administrative organization and technique in recent years, so that he who runs a college may readily read. I would keep Trevor Arnett's book on *College and University Finance* at my elbow for ready reference; I would read the splendid survey of typical arts colleges¹ made under a Commonwealth Fund grant by Frederick J. Kelly, Dean of Administration of the University of Minnesota, as well as the text on *Tendencies in College Administration* by the distinguished Executive Secretary of the Association of American Colleges, who bears the same surname. I would write at once to the secretaries of the two flourishing associations of College and University Business Officers, the one of the Eastern States and the other of the Middle West, insisting that they keep my name on their mailing lists for copies of their proceedings and papers and of their conference programs. I would wire Mr. E. B. Stevens, Executive Secretary of the University of Washington, to send me at once a copy of his pamphlet issued under the auspices of the U. S. Bureau of Education on *How Much Does Higher Education Cost?* and also for the findings resulting from his exhaustive study of the financial practices of American institutions under the auspices of the Educational Finance Inquiry a year or so ago. I might even write to the Comptroller of the Uni-

¹ *The American Arts College*, The Macmillan Co. 1925.

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versity of Pennsylvania for a copy of the Financial Report of that institution which gives a comprehensive analysis and distribution of instructional costs among the thirteen constituent schools. And finally I would make sure that the bulletins received from the Bureau of Education were carefully checked over for any references to new works appearing in the rapidly developing field of business administration.

All through my reading and study a definite principle is taking shape. I will substitute fact-finding for fault-finding. My past experience and observation have taught me that much of the friction, disagreement, heart-aches and suspiciousness, too frequently encountered in academic environments, arises from ignorance or misunderstanding. Effectiveness is impossible without a strong *esprit de corps*, a "will" to cooperate and team work, and the development of a university-wide or college-wide feeling of interest and sympathy.

As administration touches so intimately every part of education I appreciate the importance of careful selection of personnel. Unless my faculty respects my administrative officers and has confidence in their ability and ideals of service, effectiveness is not yet within reach. I think I am ready to go a step beyond my sister institutions in the selection of my principal business officer. Whether I call him Treasurer, Comptroller, Business Manager or Bursar, is not so important; what I wish to assure myself of is that he is capable of organizing and directing a phase of administration which has not yet been charted, that of "fact-finding." We are agreed that sound educational practice to-day demands an educational fact-finding office, and I believe one of the most important developments in business technique is to set up a coordinated office of administrative and financial fact-finding. I must not lose sight of the fact that while I am president of this Effective College for but a day, the college itself will continue for unnumbered years.

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I want my fact-finding officers to think not only in terms of the present but also of the future. Effectiveness twenty-five years hence may depend upon the course of events today, and I want at my disposal all the facts which will help me to make judgments consistent with the best interests of the institution. I shall expect the board to sustain without question my proposal that the men needed to head my principal administrative divisions shall be expert in their respective fields, imbued with an ideal of educational service, who shall be paid a salary commensurate with their abilities. I am not proposing this with any sudden flush of philanthropy. I expect that, dollar for dollar, the results will more than justify the outlay in increased effectiveness and economy of operation.

The selection of the administrative staff is the most serious problem before me. If I am assured of a "Personnel with Personality," I can confidently proceed with my work. Studies and surveys and symposia, together with the omnivorous questionnaire, are bringing within the ken of all of us the best practice and experience in many administrative matters. Within the past year or so the following noteworthy results of extensive investigation and study have appeared. *A Study of Student Loans and Their Relation to Higher Educational Finance* is a remarkably thorough survey of the financial development of higher education, sources of educational income, the allocation of higher educational costs, the student as a financial risk, and the administration of student loans. The report is replete with charts and graphs and schedules. It was prepared by a committee of the Association of University and College Business Officers of the Eastern States, under a grant from the Harmon Foundation. Mr. G. C. Wintringer, Comptroller of Princeton University, was chairman.

In the January, 1926, issue of *The Journal of Accountancy* Mr. William B. Franke discussed "Lack of Uniformity in College and University Accounting."

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A paper before the 1925 meeting of the Eastern Business Officers on "The Segregation of Investments for Special Funds," by Mr. R. N. Ball, Treasurer of the University of Rochester, presents a scientific and practical plan for administering and safeguarding the investment of trust funds.

Another valuable contribution in a restricted field was "Insurance for Educational Institutions" by L. Edward Shaw, of the brokerage firm of Veitch, Shaw and Remsen, New York.

These studies are all significant of a collective effort at administrative fact-finding. If it is a vital concern that nation-wide studies of this character should be undertaken, is it not a corollary that the findings of such investigations cannot be made of practical value unless the constituent institutions so set their houses in order that they may interpret and apply the specific recommendations growing out of such studies? Fact-finding, like other estimable virtues, properly begins at home.

I shall, therefore, insist that, like Enoch Arden, my administrative staff shall shake their isolation from them, and take their proper place in the intercollegiate concord. The President of the Carnegie Corporation shall not say of the Effective College: "Saving your presence, gentlemen, you are as a group rather ignorant than otherwise of what your neighbors are doing and thinking. Whatever the reason may be, I believe it to be the fact that our universities don't often find a way unaided to break down the barriers between different institutions or even between different departments in the same institution. University administration for one thing is proverbially stingy in giving professors a chance to move about."

Visions of scholarly and scientific meetings during the holidays in New York, Ithaca, Cleveland, Ann Arbor, Chicago, Kansas City and points West, would tend to weaken the force of this assertion, but if it is true, the same cannot

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be said of the relations existing between the business officers of hundreds of the principal colleges and universities of the country. Through the two effective organizations above referred to, a splendid spirit of cooperation has been engendered. There is constant interchange of thought and experience between members, and a willingness at all times to place at the disposal of one another the accumulated wealth of experience and practice of which each may be possessed. It should be written into the by-laws of the Effective College that its administrative officers must take their appropriate part in this important intercollegiate clearing-house of experience.

I come now to the second factor in effective administration. I shall see to it that in my college there shall be no effective teacher who shall be submerged with administrative details. I shall profit by the experience of others; I shall not ask a high-grade educational administrator to function also as a building custodian or an office manager. I know that he has neither time nor interest to make tests in efficiency in either of these engrafted studies, with the result that there is a wide variation in the curve of work accomplished in relation to the amount expended. He cannot, of course, take time to study the latest developments in building administration, nor yet to examine the complexities of modern office management with its standards for improving the office personnel and its application of the best types of labor-saving devices which play such an important part in the conduct of any up-to-date office.

The inference is obvious. One of our first duties is to relieve educational administrators of all duties which are not purely educational in character. Building administration, with charge of the cleaning and policing force, should be vested solely in the Department of Buildings and Grounds, with an officer in charge of sufficient calibre and engineering capacity to supervise all new construction as well. Office management, too, is rapidly developing into

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an exact science calling for the service of a trained expert, and showing in return very material economies, as well as improved administrative routine. At one institution they have for the past five years had an opportunity to note the practical value of an Office Manager. He has not only raised the general level of the office personnel, but he has worked out a satisfactory salary scale and classification of employees. By means of replacements when vacancies occur and through a "transfer service," whereby clerical services from one department in which work may be slack are made available to others where pressure may be heavy, annual savings of several thousands of dollars result. In addition a centralized duplicating and mailing service has been a great advantage. Replacements of antiquated equipment by more modern, under his direction, have greatly increased the clerical output.

With respect to office equipment, great economies can be effected and more prompt and exact service provided by the adoption of many of the labor-saving machines now on the market. Bookkeeping machines, addressographs, calculators, process machines, visible indexes, etc., all have a variety of uses in expense posting, check writing, cost analysis, report preparation, and making possible a simplified class admission card system. No matter what the size of the institution, somewhere in the administrative chart there should be written large the title "Office Manager," even though the functions of that office must be combined with another.

My first act after selecting the administrative staff suited to my needs will be to call them together for conference. I shall tell them that such conferences will occur weekly and last exactly one hour. These men are to be my "Unofficial Cabinet." My purpose in doing this is severalfold. It will enable me to observe who in the group show initiative and interest. I shall try to convey to them some of my ideals and aspirations, and by the fervor of my own

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enthusiasm fire them with a cooperative zeal. In the language of industry, we will speed up production. I want them to feel that in our administration the research or pioneering instinct is vital; and that in our work there is a broad No-man's-land where constructive thinking and effort may continually unearth helpful material. If I can imbue them with this spirit I will have no concern for the day's work. Results will come quickly. Among them I will probably find that the Secretary of the Corporation will point out that we should see to it that the intercollegiate point of view and contact which President Keppel has stressed is assured to our faculty, and he, therefore, suggests that we include in a budget an item for traveling expenses, so that staff members, including some of the younger instructors, who particularly should attend meetings of scholarly or scientific bodies, may have their expenses borne at least in part by the institution. My fiscal officer, too, will probably refer to Frank Bohn's \$50,000 professors, and say that there is more to that than one would assume at first blush. And in support of his statement he produces a graph showing the curve of advancing living costs during the past ten years and the wholly inadequate scale in teaching salaries over the same period. His argument in support of a sane salary policy, predicated upon simple justice, leads to a general discussion of the inadequacy of the institution's funds to meet the demands upon it, and to compete on favorable terms with other institutions in attracting and holding effective teachers, as well as to provide the facilities essential to their work. Obviously this is the entering wedge of a most vital inquiry—the future financial strength of the institution, and leads to a study of sources and methods through which our integrity and effective development may be assured. We realize that now is the time to plan for the future. We have begun to think out loud.

Before I dismiss the meeting, I shall sketch for them briefly the outlines of my simple administrative chart. We

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will consider our Effective College as roughly falling into three divisions—education, welfare and operation. In the first I group faculties of instruction and research, and educational administration; in the second, housing, activities, health and associations; and in the third, archives, finances, plant maintenance and general administration. Irregularities in the plan can be ironed out by the fine hand of coordination. I shall not fool myself or them by believing that a comprehensive administrative chart solves all the problems of business administration. It is at best the cutting out of a channel through which may flow the current of our daily work. How strong that current is or how deep the stream depends upon the individual springs that feed it.

I hope I have made my point clear. I have not given any time to a consideration of balance sheets and operating statements, budgets and budget control, purchase order systems, expense classifications, repair shop and steam plant operation, and building maintenance. My staff must be expected to keep abreast of the best practice in their fields. If any do not, mutual interests would dictate a separation of relations. On the other hand, I shall try to develop in their minds a sense of dual values in their work. The first, to do the job in hand well, and the second, to build for that “college of the future,” to which Dr. Aydelotte has referred, so that the accumulated strength of the business organization will be put behind the one unmistakable aim of the institution—the effectiveness of the educational service.

Therefore, whether my college is to be part of a great and populous university, or a college by itself, expansive in its own girth, or a “small, rare volume,” the problems are the same, they merely telescope from the former to the latter.

I see that Father Time is about to raise his gavel, bringing to an end my administration of a day. Therefore, in order that the records may be complete, Gentlemen of the Board, I herewith tender my resignation as President *ex tempore* of the Effective College.

XXV

THE COST OF EDUCATION IN AN EFFECTIVE COLLEGE

FLOYD W. REEVES

The problem under discussion may best be approached from the point of view of present educational costs. As a means of arriving at an estimate of the funds required for the maintenance of an effective college, data will be presented relating to the expenditures of a group of liberal arts colleges during the academic year, 1925-26.¹ These data were obtained from the following sixteen liberal arts colleges: Antioch, Bethany, Carleton, Coe, Concordia, Culver-Stockton, Drake (University), Eureka, Gustavus Adolphus, Hamline (University), Hiram, Huron, Macalester, Phillips (University), St. Olaf, Wabash.

I. Current Educational Expenditures

No two of the institutions studied employed the same accounting methods; consequently, before comparisons could be made, it became necessary to reclassify items of expenditure. Current educational expenditure, as the term is used in this discussion, includes outlays for instructional salaries, instructional supplies and expense, administration, operation and maintenance of the physical plant, and library. It does not include capital expenditure for plant and fixed assets, such as lands, new buildings, or equipment for new buildings; neither does it include non-operative expenditure incurred for specially designated objects not a part of strictly educational work, such as expenditure in-

¹ For sources, and for a further discussion of the techniques employed, see Reeves, Floyd W., *Report of a Survey of Colleges and Universities of the Disciples of Christ* (in press). Board of Education, Disciples of Christ, Indianapolis.

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curred through annuity or endowment investments, losses incurred through dining hall or dormitory operations, expenditure due to campaigns for funds, scholarship subsidies, expenditure for extra-curricular activities, and other items of this nature.

The enrolment figures employed represent the annual carrying loads of the institutions: that is, the average of the enrolments at the end of the fourth week of the two semesters or three terms of the regular year session; if the institution maintains a summer session, the summer session enrolment, reduced to a basis of thirty-six weeks, is added to the enrolment of the regular year session.

The current educational expenditures range from \$69,381 to \$309,220. The smallest enrolment is 290 in a college with current educational expenditure of \$129,627. Two colleges have an enrolment of 300 and their current educational expenditures are reported as \$78,950 and \$103,479. The highest enrolment is 1,345, with current educational expenditure of \$232,886. Another college enrolls 999 students and has a current educational expenditure of \$219,662.

The current educational expenditure per student ranges from \$173 in the college with the largest enrolment to \$583 in a college with an enrolment of 338. The total current educational expenditure for the sixteen colleges is \$2,370,850; the total enrolment 8,962, and the average current educational expenditure per student is \$265. Special music and art students, and expenditures for such students are not included in these data. At institutions maintaining academies, three academy students are considered as equivalent in load to two students of college rank.

II. *Relation of Instructional Salaries to Current Educational Expenditure*

Current expenditure per student represented in the annual carrying load, and the average salary of full-time members of the teaching staff are next considered. In the

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computation of averages, salaries of presidents are not included. Salaries of other officers of administration are included when such officers are also members of teaching staffs. Considerable correlation exists between the current expenditures per student and the average salaries of full-time teachers. Only one of the eight institutions having the lower expenditures per student has an average salary in excess of \$2,400, while only two of the eight institutions having the higher expenditures per student have average salaries lower than \$2,400. The lowest average salary among the four institutions having the higher expenditures per student is more than \$100 in excess of the highest average salary among the four institutions having the lower expenditure per student. In the four institutions with lowest current expenditure per student—\$173 (two), \$174, and \$187, the average salary of full-time teachers is \$2,096, \$2,371, \$2,209, and \$1,988 respectively, while in the college with the highest expenditure per student—\$583, the average salary of full-time teachers is \$3,426.

A study of the relationships existing among groups of institutions with respect to enrolments, current expenditures per student, average salaries, and percentages that instructional salaries are of current expenditures brings out the following significant facts.²

(a) In Group I there are six institutions, each having an enrolment in excess of 500 students. The current expenditure per student enrolled in this group of colleges is \$233. The average salary received by full-time members of the teaching staff is \$2,273. Fifty-nine per cent. of the current expenditure is for instructional salaries.

(b) In Group II there are six institutions, each having an enrolment between 350 and 500 students. The current

² The figures representing current expenditures per student, average salaries, and per cents that instructional salaries are of current expenditures are obtained by combining the data for each group of institutions, and treating the group as a single institution.

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expenditure per student enrolled in this group is \$257; the average salary of full-time teachers \$2,350; and the expenditure for instructional salaries is 58 per cent. of total current expenditures.

(c) In Group III there are four institutions having an enrolment below 350 students. The current expenditure per student is \$415; the average salary of full-time teachers \$2,710; the percentage of total current expenditures devoted to instructional salaries is 60.

For the sixteen institutions, with enrolments ranging from 290 to 1,345 students, the current educational expenditure per student is \$265, the average salary of full-time teachers \$2,352; and the percentage of total current expenditures devoted to salaries 59.

The current expenditure per student, as well as the average salary of full-time teachers, tends to be greater for the small institutions than for the larger ones. However, the per cents. that instructional salaries are of current educational expenditures do not vary significantly among institutions of different sizes.

The higher costs per student in the smaller institutions are due in part to higher salaries paid at these institutions and in part to other factors. Although the current expenditure per student for the institutions of Group III above is 78 per cent. greater than that for the institutions of Group I, yet the average salary for the institutions of Group III is only 19 per cent. greater than the average salary for the institutions of Group I. Furthermore, an analysis of the budgets of the institutions shows that the current expenditure per teacher for purposes other than instructional salaries for the institutions of Group III is only 20 per cent. greater than that for the institutions of Group I.

The most important single factor responsible for differences in current expenditures per student among institutions of different enrolments is the relatively large percentage of very small classes maintained for senior college

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students in the smaller institutions. There appears to be no way to avoid this situation. A small institution must have a relatively larger number of small classes than a large institution, if the offerings of the institutions are to be equally satisfactory. In so far as salaries are related to cost per student, there appears to be no good reason why the larger institutions should not purchase as high a quality of instruction as small institutions.

An investigation of the training of the staff members of all of the sixteen institutions leads to the conclusion that the institutions of Group III tend to have upon their staffs more highly trained instructors than those upon the staffs of the institutions of either Group I or Group II. However, irrespective of the size of the institutions examined, the general principle seems to hold true that a relatively larger number of well-trained instructors, as well as a relatively larger number of staff members who have obtained national recognition in the fields in which they are engaged, are found upon the staffs of institutions paying the higher salaries than are found upon the staffs of the institutions paying the lower salaries.

III. *Estimates of the Cost of Education for Effective Colleges*

At present, an effective college can be defined only in terms of standards set up in a manner more or less arbitrary. In terms of such standards the cost of education in effective colleges may be determined by an analysis, upon a factual basis, of present costs, together with a study of the degree to which the present expenditures of institutions enable them to attain the standards suggested.

The following tentative conclusions bearing upon the cost of education in effective institutions with enrolments of various numbers may be drawn from the data presented in the earlier sections of this report:

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1. Current educational expenditures per student vary greatly. However, there is a marked tendency for the cost per student to be greater in the small institutions than in the larger ones.
2. Although the smaller colleges among the institutions surveyed tend to pay higher average salaries than the larger ones, yet, all factors considered, it appears probable that the average salary required to obtain the services of staff members of equal instructional ability does not vary greatly for small and for larger institutions of the type included in this report.
3. The per cent. of current educational expenditure devoted to instructional salaries does not vary with the enrolment, averaging approximately 60 per cent. for all of the groups of institutions studied.

Preparatory to estimating the cost of education for effective colleges, it becomes necessary not only to give consideration to the conclusions listed above, but also to make a number of assumptions as a means of limiting the problem under discussion. The assumptions upon which the estimates given in this report are based are presented below.

1. *Purpose of the College*

The college will be maintained primarily for the purpose of providing a suitable environment in which undergraduate students may obtain a liberal education. A liberal arts college will be maintained without affiliated graduate, technical or professional schools.

2. *Research Activities*

Research in the college will not be maintained primarily with the end in view of making important contributions to knowledge; its primary purpose will be that of a tool employed for the education of students.

3. *Programs of Offerings*

It is assumed that the quality of instruction will be equal at institutions of different sizes. Since the offerings will

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be more limited in the small institution than in the larger one, the effective small college will be more selective than the larger college, from the point of view of the interests of the students concerned. Students whose needs cannot be met adequately in the small institution will be advised to attend college elsewhere.

4. *Relation Between Current Cost and Instructional Salary Cost*

Approximately 60 per cent. of the current educational expenditures of the institutions represented in this report is expenditure for instructional salaries. The percentage of expenditure given to salaries does not appear to be affected either by the enrolment of an institution or by the cost per student. Therefore, it is assumed that 60 per cent. of the current educational expenditure in effective colleges of all sizes will be expenditure for instructional salaries.

5. *Salaries of the Teaching Staff*

Since instructional salaries constitute the largest single item of expense for educational institutions, an estimate of the funds required for this purpose is basic in the computation of educational costs for effective colleges. Average salaries for the sixteen institutions range from \$1,969 to \$3,426. All of these institutions have some members on their staffs whose training is less than appears desirable for thoroughly effective colleges, although the staff of the institution having the highest average salary approaches the writer's conception of a well-qualified staff for an effective college. The staff of this institution is not only better trained than that of any of the other institutions, but also has a larger percentage of men with national reputations in their respective fields. The average annual salary proposed for the members of the instructional staff of an effective college for the regular year session is \$3,600. This average is proposed for institutions, irrespective of their size. An average salary of \$3,600 will permit a salary range of from

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\$1,800 or \$2,000 for the lowest salaried instructors to \$6,000 or \$6,500 for a limited number of the most highly paid professors. The ratios of the number of staff members holding the higher ranks to the number holding the lower ranks will vary with the size of the college. The percentage of staff members with the rank of full professor will tend to be greater in the small institutions than in the larger ones.

6. *Retirement Provisions and Sabbatic Furloughs*

In institutions where provision is made for the retirement of the older staff members, or for sabbatic furloughs, the funds provided will be considered as deferred salary payments and the salary schedule will be arranged to permit a part of the salary funds to be used for retirement provisions and furloughs.

7. *Size of the Teaching Staff*

Teachers will teach from nine to sixteen hours each week, the number of hours depending upon factors such as the size of classes, the subjects taught, the classification of students with respect to the junior college or senior college divisions, and the time required for activities other than teaching in connection with the work of the college. For institutions with enrolments of 750 and over, an average teaching load of twelve hours each week will be expected. Since classes will tend to be smaller in the small institutions than in the larger ones, the average teaching load for staff members of the small institutions may be somewhat higher than that for the larger institutions, without resulting in a greater total service load. One and one-half hours of laboratory work will be considered as constituting a load equal to one hour of lecture or recitation. The ratio of students to teachers will vary for institutions according to the number of students enrolled. In colleges with enrolments of 750 and over, the ratio of students to teachers suggested as desirable is fifteen to one; in institutions of 300 students, the ratio for effective work probably should not

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exceed ten to one. These ratios correspond roughly to those which now prevail in a few of the better institutions included in this study. However, some of these institutions now have larger numbers of small classes than appear either necessary or desirable, with the result that the number of teaching hours of staff members often exceeds the numbers suggested here. It is believed that a careful analysis of curricula and class schedules of many institutions might result in the elimination of a number of the smaller classes; this would make possible an effective program with ratios of students to teachers as large as those suggested above.

It is proposed that for a college with an enrolment of 750 students there should be fifty members of the teaching staff. The average salary of the entire group will be \$3,600. This staff will include twenty professors who will receive an average salary of \$5,000, twenty associate and assistant professors at an average salary of \$3,000, and ten instructors at an average salary of \$2,000. The salaries suggested will make possible a scale of salaries ranging from \$4,000 to \$6,500 for full professors, \$3,000 to \$4,000 for associate professors, \$2,400 to \$3,000 for assistant professors, and from \$1,800 to \$2,400 for instructors. Associate and assistant professors are grouped together in the compilation of data since a majority of the smaller institutions do not have both ranks.

A college with an enrolment of 500 students, on the basis of the assumptions just stated, should have thirty-six members of the teaching staff, with an average salary of \$3,600; sixteen of whom would be full professors with an average salary of \$4,900, thirteen, associate professors with an average salary of \$2,875; and seven, instructors with an average salary of \$1,975. An institution with an enrolment of 400 students should have thirty-three teachers with an average salary of \$3,600; fifteen of them full professors at an average salary of \$4,900, twelve associate professors at an average salary of \$2,800, and six instructors with an aver-

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age salary of \$1,950. If the enrolment were 300 students, there should be thirty teachers at an average salary of \$3,600; fifteen with the rank of full professors at an average salary of \$4,800, ten with the rank of associate professor at an average salary of \$2,650, and five instructors at an average salary of \$1,900.

The conclusions reached through the analysis of expenditures in sixteen institutions and upon the assumptions presented above, may be found in the table below, which shows the number of teachers, the ratio of students to teachers, the average salary of teachers, the current educational cost per teacher, the total current educational expense, and the current educational cost per student proposed for effective colleges of several sizes. The column representing current educational cost per teacher is derived from the column representing average salaries of teachers, the average salaries being considered as amounting to 60 per cent. of the current educational costs. It is assumed that institutions with enrolments in excess of 750 will have the same ratio

NUMBER OF TEACHERS, RATIO OF STUDENTS TO TEACHERS, AVERAGE
SALARY OF TEACHERS, CURRENT EDUCATIONAL COST PER
TEACHER, TOTAL CURRENT EDUCATIONAL EXPENSE,
AND CURRENT EDUCATIONAL COST PER STUDENT,
PROPOSED FOR EFFECTIVE COLLEGES

Enrolment	Number of Teachers	Ratio of Students to Teachers	Average Salary of Teachers	Current Educational Cost per Teacher	Total Current Educational Expense	Current Educational Cost per Student
750	50	15.0	\$3,600	\$6,000	\$300,000	\$400
500	36	13.9	3,600	6,000	216,000	432
400	33	12.1	3,600	6,000	198,000	495
300	30	10.0	3,600	6,000	180,000	600

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of students to teachers, and, consequently, the same current educational cost per student, as institutions with enrolments of 750. Data obtained in a number of surveys made by the writer indicate that institutions with enrolments of 750 can be maintained at a cost per student no greater than that which is required for larger institutions.

The data relating to expenditures presented for the sixteen colleges included in this report, as well as the cost figures proposed for effective colleges, refer to current costs only. No charges have been included for depreciation on the educational buildings and equipment or for interest on the funds invested in plant and equipment. Few institutions make any attempt to compute depreciation costs or interest on funds invested in grounds or educational buildings and equipment; consequently, the most useful figures for comparative purposes appear to be those representing current educational costs. However, from data obtained from the colleges in which surveys have been made, it is possible to approximate roughly costs for interest and depreciation.

In the State of Washington, the State Bureau of Inspection of Public Offices some years ago adopted a schedule of depreciation for all institutions.³ Applying this schedule to the institutions represented in this study and assuming that the percentages of current expenditures chargeable to depreciation and to interest on plant investment will be the same for effective colleges as for the group of institutions for which data are available, the average costs for depreciation will range from \$40 per student in institutions of 750 students and over to \$60 per student in institutions of 300 students; the average costs per student for interest on funds invested in the educational plant will range from \$100 per student in institutions of 750 students and over, to \$150 per student in institutions of 300 students. The costs proposed

³ L. D. McArdle. *Uniform System of Accounts and General Instructions for State Departments and Institutions.*

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for effective colleges, computed upon these bases, are shown in the table below.

ESTIMATED COSTS PER STUDENT FOR EFFECTIVE COLLEGES WITH
ENROLMENTS OF 300, 400, 500, AND 750 AND OVER

College Enrolment	Current Cost	Interest on Plant In- vestments	Deprecia- tion Charges ⁴	Total
750 and over	\$400	\$100	\$40	\$540
500	432	108	43	583
400	495	124	49	668
300	600	150	60	810

In analyzing this table it should be remembered that the data upon which these estimates are based were obtained from institutions situated in the territory of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. Some of these institutions are located in cities and others in rural communities. Educational costs are affected markedly by the locations of institutions, since a dollar will purchase more in some communities than in others. Furthermore, standards of living which staff members must maintain are not at all uniform among different communities in the same state, or among different states. Also, the expenses of institutions for items such as heat and light depend very largely upon geographical location. No single schedule of costs can be set up for all effective colleges. Because of factors such as those mentioned above, modifications of the schedule proposed must be made for different localities.

⁴ This does not include an interest or depreciation charge on funds invested in dormitories or dining halls. Dormitories and dining halls are assumed to be self-supporting and to return to the college 5 per cent. interest on the funds invested.

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NINTH PART
THE COLLEGE OF THE FUTURE

Chapter

XXVI. The Outlook for the American College

XXVI

THE OUTLOOK FOR THE AMERICAN COLLEGE

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Words are applied so vaguely that before using them it is well to define them. An American college may be taken to mean membership in this Association, but while that is very well for the present, it is hardly adequate for the future, or definite enough to measure the functions of an institution. Great as are the divergencies between the bodies calling themselves colleges to-day, they may be greater still hereafter. Let me first, therefore, say that in the term college I do not for the purpose of this discussion include purely technical or vocational schools whose object is to prepare young people for a distinct career. In the second place, and as a positive description, by the specific term American college I mean an independent institution of learning, or one that if part of a university is conducted as an end in itself; not as a stage in the process of professional education.

The thesis I desire to maintain about the future of the American college, as thus defined, is that its aim must be educational, and of a cultural rather than a vocational type.

The first of these propositions appears to be self-evident, but it has by no means been so treated in practice. For a long time in the East, and in recent years in the West, other sides of college life have tended to obscure the primary object of study. The faculties, indeed, have almost always thought of the aim as education; the administrative officers have to a less extent done the same; but to the students, and still more to parents and to the vocal part of the alumni, the college has appeared a social, if not an athletic organization. To their minds education, whatever that vague term might mean, was of course to be instilled by

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some mysterious process with little effort on the part of the student, and often against the resistance of the parent or sponsor. Let me give three examples that happen to have come to my notice.

The chairman of the scholarship committee of a local club of alumni, on being informed that the holder of their scholarship had attained an honor rank in his studies, replied that he would rather have heard that the holder had won a managership on an athletic team.

A mother of a student said in astonishment to the mother of another that she believed the latter would rather have her son the first scholar in his class than be in the best social club. The preference of the parent who expressed her surprise is certainly a common one, and it illustrates a common estimate of relative values in college life.

The third example is that of a father whose son had been cut off for a time from an athletic team by getting on probation for low marks. He told the dean that the college was not conducted as it should be, that there ought to be someone to inform the students which were the snap courses.

Of course all parents are not like this, but an attitude not very far removed is much too frequent. In fact, though contrary to the general impression, it seems to be more prevalent to-day among parents than among the students themselves who are more ready to accept any standards on which the faculty seriously insists. Unless the American college succeeds in convincing its own students, their parents and the public at large, that its main object is an education acquired by the personal effort of the student himself, it will pass away as an important factor in the life of our country. To do this it is necessary to make him recognize that, other things being equal, the better the education he obtains, as shown by his academic standing, the more the benefit he receives from going to college; for people do not sincerely believe that a thing is worth striv-

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ing for unless they also believe that excellence therein is better than mediocrity.

A few colleges in this country, which manage to have a particularly fashionable reputation, may succeed in retaining for a long time a popularity as socially desirable places to send young people; and this will probably always remain one element of attraction. But unless even such colleges keep fairly near the scholastic standard set by their rivals, they will fall into grave danger. On the whole the American college will survive or perish on its educational merits.

In spite of the rush of students to our colleges there are, indeed, ominous signs on the horizon. Two universities, Johns Hopkins and Leland Stanford, have announced that they intend to abolish their undergraduate departments, and receive students for graduate or professional work from junior colleges, or after two years of study at a four year college. This is important, not because of any direct damage to the members of this Association, but because it shows a lack of confidence, by no means without foundation, in the value of the American college as now conducted. It is a warning that the colleges cannot continue as they have been in the past; that their product must be better educated, more mature in its grasp of intellectual problems, more serious in its attitude toward life. No doubt the tide has already turned; many faculties, perhaps most of them, are insisting on higher standards, and getting them, as the complaints of parents seem to prove. But the tide in many colleges must run stronger yet.

I have alluded to the junior colleges that are springing up over the country. They do not seem to me a menace to the good American college, but on the contrary a benefit. Doubtless they will intercept and draw away many young people who would otherwise go to a four year college, but these will for the most part be youths who had better not go to such a college. The junior college will convince them that higher education is not the thing they really desire;

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that they want to go as quickly as possible into some active career instead of spending more time in studying books. They are the type that would probably be misfits in the American college, and after a year or two would drop out or be a drag on the rest of the class. Perhaps it may not be uncharitable to suggest that one of the merits of these new institutions will be keeping out of college, rather than leading into it, young people who have no natural taste for higher education. For them the junior college can do much, by giving them a vocational training for the work in life they would like to do; and, if I am right, the presence of large numbers of this type in such colleges may be expected, in most parts of the country, to give the dominant tone to those schools. Certainly it is unlikely that they can prepare young people for the higher forms of cultural study as effectively as it can be done in the freshman and sophomore years of a good American college. They can hardly enlist teachers of the caliber of college professors. The salaries are too high, and scholars will almost universally prefer institutions of higher learning. Only the best students at the junior colleges are likely to find their academic way farther. It would seem, therefore, that these institutions will not be dangerous rivals to good American colleges, but will relieve them by doing a different kind of work, and one that appears to be needed at the present time.

This brings me to the second point of my thesis, that the aim of the American college must be cultural, rather than vocational. There is a need for a greater diversity in American education than exists to-day, and for a far greater recognition of the diversity that actually exists. Most institutions of a certain grade purport to give a commonly known standard of instruction in addition to that which is their special province. In states which maintain several institutions of higher education there is a marked tendency to encroach on each others' fields. Colleges are

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inclined to give vocational teaching, and vocational schools to add a general academic course.

Of course the line between cultural and vocational instruction cannot absolutely be drawn. Few, if any, subjects do not have a cultural value. There lay the mistake of a former type of university don, illustrated by the squib on Benjamin Jowett. "What I don't know is not knowledge." And, on the other hand, any subject may be so taught for vocational use that its cultural value is well-nigh gone. The essential difference lies in the object, the attitude of mind, the spirit of the instructor and of the student. I well remember taking in college a course on comparative anatomy and physiology given by William James. Although he had recently graduated from the Medical School his interest was in the purely scientific side of the subject, and so was that of most of us. But some of the students intended to be physicians and they were more attracted by anything that seemed to bear upon their future profession. Under such conditions it was almost inevitable that we should absorb and retain the more purely scientific knowledge, and they more the practical applications. The difference between us would have been even greater if, instead of having the same teacher, they had been taking a strictly professional course in a medical school.

Vocational instruction, however technically given, can hardly fail to have some cultural value; and cultural studies rarely give no information that the student will not turn to practical use. Yet the difference exists, the emphasis of the teacher is not the same, nor the receptiveness of the student. May we not describe the difference thus. Vocational instruction is that which aims to prepare students for the practice of a definite occupation; while the direct object of cultural instruction is to enlarge the student's field of knowledge, make him think clearly and stimulate his imagination, without regard to any definite use. It is rational to suppose, and experience seems to show, that, on

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the average, each of these forms of instruction, if good of its kind, attains the object that it especially seeks. An institution may, no doubt, aim at both objects; and in that case it will probably attain both indifferently well. Let us not be too dogmatic. These things are neither capable of exact definition, nor so different as to be quite mutually exclusive. It is a matter of degree and emphasis, but for all that the difference is not the less real.

For a generation the system known as that of the combined degree has been widely used, especially by the state universities. This enables an undergraduate to fill his last two college years with courses in the professional schools of law, medicine or business, receiving at the end of that period his degree of bachelor of arts or science, as well as two years' credit towards his professional diploma. Save for objections on the ground that the same work is counted toward two degrees, and that confusion is caused about the significance of the bachelor's degree, both of which are criticisms of form, the plan seems to have great merits. In some universities by far the larger part of the juniors and seniors are pursuing this path, and probably it is well that they should do so. A full college course of four years, followed by three or four years in a professional school, is more time than most young men can spend before beginning on their life's work; and this system seems well adapted to meet their needs. The plan, in fact, means that the students, being on admission the ordinary product of the average high school, devote their freshman and sophomore years to little more than a completion of their secondary education, and pre-medical work for those who intend to be physicians. This done, they begin at once their professional studies.

The independent college cannot compete with the state universities on this basis. In order to offer the professional instruction within its own walls it would have to raise money enough to turn itself into a university, thereby

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ceasing to be an independent college. Even to give enough professional teaching to cover the last two college years would be very expensive; nor, in a subject like law which requires more than two years of consecutive study, would it be satisfactory, for the students would prefer to go to a law school where they can do continuous work for the degree. If, on the other hand, a college favors the plan of the combined degree, and does not give professional instruction itself, a large part of the students will leave at the end of the second year and go to universities, as in fact is the case now in some colleges.

The American college must have a field of its own, self-sufficient, not dependent on another institution for completion. Such a field is the one I have called cultural, using the term in the broad sense of what man is, what he has thought and done, and the laws of nature that surround him. Call it man and his environment; call it the philosophy of life; call it what you will, it is the subject that in its various aspects of philosophy, literature, art and science has occupied many of the greatest minds that have dwelt upon our earth. The number of young men seeking an education of that kind will probably never be so large as those who want vocational training by a shorter path; but, now that our people have attained material prosperity and comfort, there is a growing desire for culture, for life on a more intellectual and spiritual plane. The charges of materialism hurled at us from other lands are only true in part; there is also a craving for better things, not withal inconsistent with physical well-being; and I believe that this craving will wax stronger as the nation becomes more mature. If the American college can make its students see the value of intellectual culture, and that it can be attained only by hard personal effort, it will thrive and fructify abundantly.

American colleges may not all be successful. Some of them will be unable to keep the pace, and will become

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junior colleges. But in general I seem to foresee in this country three types of college giving a bachelor's degree; not closed types, wholly distinct, capable of being rigidly classified, but different enough to be recognized. First, the independent college of the arts and pure sciences, with a four years' course and a definitely cultural intent. Second, those that after the first two years give to the bulk of their students mainly professional instruction with a vocational aim. These will be connected with universities, and for the most part with those maintained by the state. Third, universities with professional schools open, as a rule, only to graduates, and undergraduate departments, or colleges, whose object, like that of the independent ones, is clearly cultural. Each of these types will do its distinctive work; each will supply a great need; and each will fulfill in its way the object for which all exist, the educational service of our people.

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